The Nation.

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The Week.

It is, of course, not easy to say exactly what Gen. Harrison meant by his remarks to the Grand Army post at Indianapolis, about "standing shoulder to shoulder as we did during the war to preserve a free and honest ballot," and about the danger of a "corrupt and suppressed ballot." We hope it meant something specific. We have during the past fifteen years heard a great deal of this sort of talk from Republican politicians without its meaning anything at all. When Gen. Harrison talks of a "free and honest ballot," "or a corrupt and suppressed ballot," he most probably means the ballot at the South, and not the ballot in Indiana or New York But, unfortunately, although Republicans talk much about the Southern ballot, they never tell us what they mean to do to improve it. Gen. Harrison does not tell us what he means by "standing shoulder to shoulder" when the bugle blows. What does this figure of speech foreshadow—a Constitutional amendment? an act of Congress or joint resolution setting up a pure ballot at the South? If none of these, what?

We see by a despatch to the *New York Times* from Indianapolis that

> "among the politicians, however, it is pretty well agreed that Gen. Harrison means to have a vigorous Southern policy—one that will resemble the policy of Thad Stevens and Ben Wade. Most of the Republican politicians here are in favor of such a policy, and their bias that way perhaps makes them put a stronger interpretation on Gen. Harrison's words than they will bear. It is a fact, though, that the idea which his comrades of the Grand Army post who heard him make the speech gathered, and held when they came out of the meeting, was, that Gen. Harrison believed that the Republican party ought to rule in the Southern States, and that it would be his business to see that it did rule, even if it should take the most rigorous measures."

Is it not too bad that such rubbish should be talked among politicians in the hundredth year of the Constitution? Of course Gen. Harrison does not mean that he will overturn the Constitution and set up a dictatorship at the South, or be any more "rigorous" to any human being than the law of the land allows. The only sternness that he could show the South would consist in filling Federal offices exclusively with the ignorant and disreputable people who, in the Southern States, comprise the great bulk of the Republican party; but how this would help the cause of ballot-reform does not clearly appear. Unhappily, if we may judge from the experience of the past, loud Republican talk about the electoral abuses in the South usually means a determination not to reform abuses nearer home which are completely within our reach. If anybody has a plan for securing free and pure voting at the South, let us see it and discuss it. If he has not, let him give his time and attention to several plans for securing free and pure elections at the North which are now before the public.

The enormous difficulties of this Southern ballot question are well illustrated by the failure now announced of the Northern and Southern Presbyterian Assemblies to agree on a plan of union. The negro has been found an insuperable obstacle. The Northern Assembly wants him to be admitted on a footing of perfect equality in church membership and church government. The Southern Assembly absolutely refuses this, and says that if it were a practical question for the Northern Assembly, it would decide it in the same manner—a view which gets much color from the treatment the negro experiences in Northern hotels, churches, and society and politics. The truth is, that the way the negro question, like the pew question, is settled in church organizations depends largely on how seriously people take their Christianity. If they take it only with such seriousness as will not interfere with their comfort, they will keep both the negro and the ill-flavored white man out of the church. If they accept it absolutely, without qualification or conditions, just as they profess it in prayer and preaching, neither the negro nor the ill-flavored white man will give any trouble.

The Democratic Governor of the Southern State of Georgia shows a much clearer conception of the Constitution than most Republican speakers and writers in the North. The Legislature recently passed a special school bill for the city of Macon, which provided that the taxes paid by white persons should be spent in maintaining schools for white children exclusively, and that the colored schools should receive only the proceeds of taxes paid by colored people. This was undoubtedly an attempt to do what is explicitly forbidden by the Fourteenth Amendment to the Constitution of the United States, in the clause declaring that "no State shall make or enforce any law which shall abridge the privileges or immunities of citizens of the United States," inasmuch as the proposed policy would abridge the privilege of such citizens of Macon as are colored to an equal share with other citizens in the enjoyment of the money raised by the taxation of all citizens for school purposes. The measure was also obnoxious to the State Constitution, as well as opposed to sound public policy, and on these grounds Gov. Gordon vetoed it. Similar propositions have been mooted before in other Southern States, but the fate of the Georgia experiment will probably put an end to them.

If this bill had been enacted into law and enforced, there would have been a case for action by the Federal Government under the fifth section of the Fourteenth Amendment, which provides that "the Congress shall have power to enforce by appropriate legislation the provisions of this article." But it seems not to be understood by most northern Republicans who write flippantly upon the subject of the new Administration's "Southern policy," that in the absence of some obnoxious State action, the Federal Government has no right to interfere when things go wrong in a State. The Supreme Court took the utmost pains to make this point clear in the decision annulling the Civil Rights Act on the ground of its unconstitutionality. "Until some State law has been passed," said the Court, "or some State action through its officers or agents has been taken, adverse to the rights of citizens sought to be protected by the Fourteenth Amendment, no legislation of the United States under said amendment, nor any proceedings under such legislation, can be called into activity; for the prohibitions of the amendment are against State laws and acts done under State authority."

It is very noticeable that Democratic sentiment in other States than New York does not sympathize with Gov. Hill's objections to an exclusively official ballot, printed, marked, and distributed only by sworn State officials. His idea that official and unofficial ballots should both be received at the ballot-boxes finds no advocates anywhere. The Indianapolis *Sentinel* says that no law which does not put the printing and distributing of the ballots entirely into the hands of the State "would be worth the time and trouble involved in securing its passage," and that "a moment's reflection will convince any intelligent person that State-printed and distributed tickets constitute the key to any real reform in our election system." Similar in tone is the utterance of another Democratic newspaper, the Chicago *Globe*: "The law must take the voting paper into its own hands exclusively. The law must initiate it, print it, hold it, guard it, protect it against the touch of any person not its own authorized agent, and deliver it to the voter as he approaches to vote, out of the reach of all other persons." Gov. Morehouse of Missouri, in his message to the Legislature, gives emphatic expression to the same sentiment, and urges as models for a law in Missouri the new Massachusetts ballot act and the one vetoed by Gov. Hill last year. So far as our observation goes—and we have watched the current of discussion very closely—not a single advocate of the reform in any party has sustained the positions taken by Gov. Hill in his latest utterances.

There is now scarcely a Northern State in which active steps are not being taken to secure the enactment of a ballot-reform law, and in a large number bills are either pending before the Legislatures or are ready for introduction. There are bills in some stage of development in New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Rhode Island,

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Connecticut, Indiana, Missouri, Maine, Michigan, and Illinois; as well as in South Carolina and Alabama. Massachusetts has passed a complete law, and there are laws in Kentucky and Wisconsin embodying special applications of the law to cities. In every instance in which the experiment has been put into practice, as in the cities of Milwaukee and Louisville, it has worked so successfully as to silence all hostile criticism. There is, in fact, nothing to be said against the reform except that it will destroy the business of the professional politicians who have for so many years managed our elections for their own personal benefit, and to the detriment of the public interest. It is very evident that public sentiment is so thoroughly aroused to the need of the reform that the efforts of the politicians to block the way of it cannot prevail for any long time.

Senator Edmunds's resolution, expressing the serious concern and disapproval with which Congress would look upon any connection of any European Government with the construction or control of any canal across the Isthmus of Darien or across Central America, was passed by the Senate with only three dissenting votes, and would have passed unanimously but for the clause in it which requests the President to communicate "this expression of the views of the Government of the United States" to the Governments of Europe. There is certainly room for difference of opinion among the friends of the resolution as to this part of it. The Executive is the sole organ of communication with foreign powers, and it may be rightfully, or at all events honestly, held that Congress cannot put into his mouth the form of words he shall use in such communications, or prescribe the time and manner of making them. The resolution, as passed by the Senate, strictly interpreted, would require the President to make a fair copy of the text and send it to each of our representatives abroad. It is "this expression," not any different one, longer or shorter, that he is requested to transmit. It would be much more comformable to the line of safe precedent to leave the time and manner of making the communication to the President's discretion. It is altogether likely that the President would choose his own time and manner even if the resolution were to pass the House exactly as it has passed the Senate. Moreover, no harm could come from the exercise of his discretion in the premises, since all the Governments of Europe will be possessed of our views on the subject-matter without any formal communication of them.

A petition has been extensively circulated asking Congress to allow a refund of duties on tin plates imported and used for the canning industries. Under the present law a drawback of such duties is allowed on cans exported to foreign countries. That is to say, if a packer of fruits, meats, oysters, fish, vegetables, etc., has actually exported $10,000 worth of tin cans, he can collect back from the Treasury about $3,400, that being the amount of duty paid for the tin plates of which the cans were made. The petition recites this law, and then argues that, because the domestic use of tin cans is temporary, since they become useless as soon as they are opened, the same drawback should be allowed as in case of exportation. The analogy does not seem to be perfect. A drawback is allowed in exportation because the exporter must meet foreign competition, which is a very different thing from the temporary use of a can in the home market. What is temporary use? The farmer's wife uses a tin pan until it is worn out, but this use is temporary. A roofer uses tin plates until the weather destroys them, but this use, as all householders know, is temporary. The canner uses tin cans until he sells them, or until they are opened in order that their contents may be consumed. All these uses are alike temporary. Is there any reason why the canner for the home market should be preferred above the farmer's wife, the roofer, or the workman who carries his dinner in a tin pail? The petition is a new attempt to get rid of the evils of a tariff without attacking its principles, like cutting a hole in a tight shoe, or "whipping the devil around the stump." It is probably pushed in the interest of those who want the duty on tin plates increased, but who fear the opposition of the canning industries.

It is announced that the movement for the exclusion of foreign stock actors has been practically abandoned by its originators, and that no formal argument for it will be made before the Congressional Committee. Simultaneously with this announcement comes another one, that Messrs. Booth and Barrett, whose names alone made the proposal worthy of serious consideration, were misrepresented when they were said to be in favor of it. It is now asserted that they were never in sympathy with it, and it will give their friends great pleasure to believe that this is true. The future is full of gloom for the incompetent American actor who has been temporarily cheered by the hope that he could force the American theatre-goer to take him or nothing; but he must buckle down to work like other men, and win on his merits or go to the wall—or to the country towns.

The report that the doctors, like the actors, had begun to clamor for protection from foreign competition, has very little foundation. It originated in an article in the last number of the *Medical Record*, which complained of the advent from Germany mainly, but also from France, Italy, and England, of large numbers of medical students who had failed to get their diplomas, and therefore could not practise in their own countries, but who settle down here, put out a sign, and pay visits for twenty-five and fifty cents. The *Medical Record* says the practice of some of the older German physicians has "been seriously curtailed by these interlopers," and calls for the appointment of an independent board of medical examiners in this State who shall pass on the qualifications of doctors, whether they have the diploma of a medical college or not. This is desirable even as regards natives, because, as everybody knows, there is a great difference in medical schools, and consequently a great difference in the value of diplomas. It is doubly desirable with regard to foreigners, about whose diplomas few people here know anything. It will thus be seen that tariff protection for home doctors against the pauper doctors of Europe is not asked for. It is the false doctors whom it is proposed to exclude, and whom no good government permits to practise on the poor within its jurisdiction.

It is a long time since a more perfect specimen of what is known in the speculative world as the "bubble" has been seen than the Electric Sugar Company, which collapsed on Thursday. It seems to have been a fraud of the simplest kind—so simple that it is a wonder of human credulity that men could be found who were willing to invest money in it. A German "professor" appeared here about four years ago with an alleged discovery for refining sugar by a new electrical process, claiming that at least $12 a ton could be saved by it. He kept the process a profound secret, locking the machinery of it in a room which he connected by a shoot with a room beneath. He took raw sugar ostentatiously into the upper room, and allowed visitors to assemble in the room beneath. They soon heard the whir of machinery, and a few moments later saw beautiful refined sugar come down the shoot. They examined it, saw that it had a crystalline beauty superior to that of any sugar they had ever seen, at once went into raptures over the discovery, flooded the "street" with specimens, organized a company, and began to sell stock. The sugar dealers of this country were shy, however, and the stock went slowly till it was taken to England, where it went off like hot cakes, until something like a million dollars' worth of it was taken. When it had been placed, the company's officers began to notice suspicious developments in the conduct of the widow of the inventor—the latter died a short time ago—who was in charge of the secret. She soon had a sudden call to the West. They broke open the door of the secret room, and, instead of a refining process, discovered nothing but some sugar-crushers, through which sugar, already refined, had been run and sent down the shoot to the audience-chamber below. Not a particle of the raw sugar taken to the secret room had been touched. Refined sugar, secretly conveyed there, had been treated to some chemical process which gave it the admired crystalline appearance, and then it had been put through the crushers. That is all there was to the secret. And the victims of this cheap fraud are not only adults, but many of them in England at least, experienced sugar refiners.

Testimony which is entitled to weight as to the workings of prohibition in Kansas is furnished in a report just made by the Stockholders' Committee of the Farmers' Loan and Trust Company, who treat the sub-

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ject as "a matter of financial interest and otherwise to our stockholders," and with "no motive other than to apply the deductions obtained therefrom to the value of your Kansas investments." The Committee, all of whom are residents of Boston, give such facts as these upon the authority of the Attorney General of Kansas: In Leavenworth County the saloons were closed in March, 1887, and commitments to the penitentiary sank from 36 in 1886 to 13 in 1887, and 5 during the first half of 1888; in Atchinson County the saloons were closed in 1886, and sentences to the penitentiary decreased from 23 in 1885 to 13 in 1886, 6 in 1887, and but 1 during the first half of 1888; the penitentiary has 104 less inmates than a year ago, and "the jails of the State are practically empty"; the proportion of paupers, which was 1 to every 750 persons in 1880, is now only 1 to 1,350. "Our observations," the Committee say, "lead us to believe that this movement is a grand success in Kansas, which adds, and will continue to add, value to all the lands in the State;" and they conclude by expressing the opinion that the facts cited are "a strong argument in favor of loans in a State advancing so rapidly in moral as well as material progress."

The explanation appears to be that Kansas is so largely an agricultural State, made up of small farming villages, and has so few cities and large towns, that public sentiment generally sustains prohibition, and the law is enforced, as is not the case in Bangor and other cities of Maine. The good effects of stopping the sale of liquor in another part of the country are shown by the experience of Washington County in Georgia—an agricultural county, with a population in 1880 of 12,515 blacks to 9,449 whites. The county was formerly "wet," but "went dry," in 1886, and declared its adherence to the same policy by a larger majority at an election last month. Under the last three years of license, the number of acres of land owned by the colored people remained almost stationary—5,886, 6,001, and 6,046; but the first year of prohibition carried it up to 11,690. In other words, the negroes acquired almost as much land in a single year when the saloons were closed, as they had done in twenty years when the saloons were open. The whites also benefited largely, of course, by the superior efficiency of their colored laborers, to say nothing of what they saved themselves. It is one compensation for the presence of the negroes in the South that it greatly strengthens public sentiment against the saloon among the whites.

The first message of Mayor Grant is a fair-spoken document, and will win for him the approval of his fellow-citizens if followed by an administration equally respectable. In some particulars his views do not coincide with those of his predecessor, as, for example, those relating to new facilities for rapid transit. In so wide a field, there is room for differences of opinion. Mayor Grant invites the public to make suggestions on this subject. He will undoubtedly receive more than enough, but it is possible that some plan may be brought forward that will conform to his views of the financial exigences of the city. This is the most urgent and also the most difficult problem pressing upon the city government. Scarcely less so is that which relates to the water-front and the proper accommodation of our maritime commerce. Here the new Mayor agrees substantially with his predecessor in urging the necessity of acquiring title to all dock property for the city. A measure to accomplish this end would have passed the Legislature at its last session if it had provided for the compensation of present owners for the use of their property during the time that condemnation proceedings were pending, and not merely after they were completed. This is a small matter, and we look to see the difference adjusted on principles of equity this winter. On the subject of overhead wires, the Mayor's position is in happy accord with public opinion. He holds that the law which requires that the wires be placed under ground, must be carried into effect, and not treated as a dead letter. As the Mayor is himself a member of the Board of Electrical Control, he will have abundant opportunity to push the work forward or to find out the reasons why it has been delayed. The city will now look to him for information on this knotty subject, and we trust that it will not look in vain.

The London *Statist*, in its issues of December 15 and December 22, has two very strong articles on the duties which the large financial institutions of Great Britain owe to clients to whom they have sold American railway securities. It contends that the consequences of rate wars among American railways have become so disastrous to the holders of these securities, and the prospect is so gloomy, that some heroic remedy must be resorted to lest the whole investment be lost. Its remedy is apparently very simple. It is that the holders of American railway securities shall be sought out, registered, and "bunched" in such manner as to make them influential in the election of directors of the several companies; that when this is done, supposing that similar steps are taken on this side of the water, the offending railway officers shall be admonished by the voice of authority to desist from the practice of throat-cutting, and that any one who thereafter offends shall be deposed as soon as the voting power can reach him.

This is merely putting in practice a maxim in everybody's mouth, that shareholders ought to look out for their own interests. Why they have not done so heretofore is because they have had no rallying-point, no leaders, no organization. The *Statist* rightly holds that the large banking-houses, and they alone, can supply this want. They have the confidence of the shareholders, which the railway officers have to a large extent forfeited. They have the knowledge which it is impossible for scattered shareholders to possess. They have the influence which the holders of the purse always have in times of financial distress. They are interested in seeing their clients through any crisis which may have supervened through their acts, in warding off any evils which may have befallen those who have, in past times, followed their lead, since their clientage is in a large sense their capital. There is probably no railroad of any magnitude whose shareholders would not come to their call in a case of danger of suspended dividends. There is certainly none whose bondholders would not seek refuge in that quarter in case of default of interest. The remedy proposed by the *Statist* is even more necessary among American shareholders than among English ones, because the interests affected by the railroad wars are enormously larger here than there. When these interests are brought together they will be all-powerful. Of course, some difficulties will be met in bringing them together, but they are not insurmountable. The influences that prompt one set of sufferers to send their voting powers to the large banking-houses will be equally potent with all. That the movement initiated here a week or two ago is coincident with that outlined by the *Statist*, there is every reason to believe.

Lord Salisbury has made all the amends he apparently means to make for his "black man" blunder by denying, in a speech at Scarborough, "that the words 'black man' necessarily involve a contemptuous denunciation." This is probably the least of an apology ever offered. Every one knows the words "black man" do not "necessarily" express contempt, because they might be used as simple description. What they are intended to convey in any particular case is to be ascertained by the context. When, for instance, you are angry with a man, and in your rage call him "a black man," it is inferred from your anger that you think "black" an opprobrious epithet. In the present case Lord Salisbury was ridiculing the Liberals for trying to elect a Parsee to the House of Commons; and the reason he gave for condemning their conduct and being prepared for their defeat, was that the candidate was a black man, showing he thought black a poor color for a legislator. But Mr. Badahai Naoroji is not black, he is simply brown, and not browner than many Englishmen; and as to race, he is as good a Caucasian as Lord Salisbury himself. Lord Salisbury further amended his remark by saying that what he really meant was, that nobody should sit in the House of Commons but "those who have been born in the British Isles," which, as the *Daily News* points out, would exclude Mr. Mathews, the Home Secretary, who was born in Ceylon. We may add, still more pertinently, that it would exclude the famous Mr. Ashmead Bartlett, who was born in Massachusetts, and is a sufficiently absurd person to have been born in the heart of Africa and to be black as the ace of spades.

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MARKING THE BALLOTS.

Gov. HILL'S remarks on the question of ballot reform, in his annual message, have served the very useful purpose of narrowing the discussion to the really vital points at issue. These are, first, an exclusively official ballot; and, second, such official marking of that ballot as will prevent the use of any counterfeit at the polls. The Governor expresses himself in opposition to the views of leading advocates of ballot reform on both these points, but we are willing to believe that he is open to conviction on both of them. As to the first, the arguments in favor of it are so conclusive that even so devoted a friend of the Governor as the *World* declares frankly that it thinks he "is clearly in the wrong." Nothing can be plainer than that official and unofficial ballots cannot both be received at the ballot-boxes without defeating the most important of the benefits hoped for under the reform system.

Concerning the necessity of marking the ballots, the evidence of experience is so strong that we think the Governor and his friends must admit the force of it. The Governor says in his message that there should not be permitted any marking of the ballots by the ballot-clerks by placing their initials thereon, or otherwise, and adds:

> "It is significant that the new election law of Massachusetts which was passed last year, but which does not go into effect until November first next, has omitted all provisions requiring the marking or identification of ballots (except in the case of illiterate electors), thus departing essentially in that respect from the English or Australian system."

This is an error. The Governor appears to have overlooked in his examination of the Massachusetts law the following passage from section 10, defining the form of the official ballot:

> "On the back and outside, when folded, shall be printed 'Official Ballot for,' followed by the designation of the polling-place for which the ballot is prepared, the date of the election, and a facsimile of the signature of the secretary of the Commonwealth or city clerk who has caused the ballot to be printed."

This makes the official printer of the ballot the man whose endorsement is the sign of its official character; but the object is the same as that sought by the requirement of the ballot-clerks' initials. The Massachusetts law provides (section 26) that "no ballot without the official endorsement shall, except as herein otherwise provided, be allowed to be deposited in the ballot box, and none but ballots provided in accordance with the provisions of this act shall be counted." The exception alluded to is found in section 19 of the law, which authorizes the city or town official to prepare new ballots in case the official ballots are found on election day to have been destroyed, or are for any other reason not at the polls. In this case he must take oath to the preparation of the new ones, and the attendant circumstances, and these must be received at the ballot-boxes. In section 29 of the law, forging the signature of the official in charge of the printing, or wilfully destroying or delaying the delivery of the ballots, is made punishable by a fine not exceeding $1,000, or by imprisonment for not more than a year, or both.

Instead, therefore, of "departing essentially from the English or Australian system," the Massachusetts law is in strict accord with it on the principle of marking the ballots. That principle is, in fact, the corner-stone of the whole ballot-reform system. It is found in the Canadian law; and in a very interesting letter which we publish in another column, will be found a detailed description of its successful working furnished by a writer who for many years has had a practical experience as an election officer under it. He shows not merely the importance of the inspector's or some other identifying official mark on the back of the ballots, but also that the Governor's pretence that such a mark destroys the secrecy of the ballot is without foundation in fact. In addition to the inspector's mark, the Canadian law requires also a counterfoil or coupon check at the bottom of the ballot, as a further safeguard against counterfeits of the official ballots; and yet, with both these checks in operation, there is no delay or confusion and no violation of secrecy.

This Canadian letter is an instructive chapter in practical experience of the reformed ballot system on other points than the marking of the ballots. It furnishes a complete answer to the familiar charge of "complexity," and shows that the new system gives orderly elections, abolishes all electioneering and bulldozing of voters at the polls, and secures a really secret ballot. That it does not entirely stop bribery has been said before by observers of its operation in Canada. Undoubtedly it helps to do so; but in Canada and in this country, it will be found that the final remedy for bribery can only be secured, as it was in England, by a law compelling the publication under oath, after election, of a complete statement of all expenditures made.

The first step is, however, the official secret ballot, and any system which is to give us that in effective form must include some provision for marking the ballots. Whether it be in the form proposed by the Saxton bill and in successful use in the Australian, English, Canadian, and Louisville law—that is, by inspectors' initials—or whether it be in the form provided in the Massachusetts law, does not matter. One method would, probably, prove as effective as the other, but the mark must be there in some form.

It is urged by some commentators on this subject, whose views are chiefly interesting as the deliverances of simple ignorance, that an official marked ballot interferes with and even destroys the constitutional right of a voter to mark his own ballot. It does nothing of the kind. Under the new Saxton bill it is especially provided that a voter may not only write or paste any name he pleases on his ballot, but so great latitude is granted him in this respect that if he chooses he may carry into the polling place a complete written ticket of his own, take it into a compartment with him, paste it over the entire face of the official ballot, fold it thus pasted, with the initials of the inspector on the outside, and it must be received and counted. It is also provided that a "reasonable space" shall be left between the names of candidates on the official ballots, in which the voter can write or paste such names as he chooses. What more can any voter ask than this? He can put any names, and as many names as he chooses, upon the official ballot which is handed to him after he has entered the polling place; but he must put them on that ballot by himself in the secrecy of the compartment, and on no other. This is the only way by which an absolutely secret ballot can be secured. Gov. Hill is so strongly in favor of a secret ballot that he says in his message that the elector should not only be *permitted* to cast it, but *compelled* to do so, and he makes the distinction, as we reproduce it, in italics. This is going much further than even the advocates of the marked-ballot requirement; for the Governor would have to guard by fine and imprisonment against the possibility of a voter's voluntarily revealing the nature of his ballot by calling out at or about the polls the name of the candidate for whom he had voted.

NEW YORK AND HER UNIVERSITY.

THE discussion over the nature and uses of universities in this country entered on a very sharp phase a fortnight ago, owing to an attack of Mr. A. D. White's in the *Forum* on the present management of Columbia College. He compared the trustees to "savages who have found a watch," and accused them of having proved "blind to their opportunities"; of having failed to make the College "exert a great civilizing and enlightening force in the metropolis and in the country, like the University at Berlin, the Collège de France and the Sorbonne in Paris, the Academy at Geneva, the School of Higher Studies at Florence," etc. To this, and much more of the same kind, one of the trustees, Mr. Harper, made answer that "Columbia is making rapid strides towards the position which we all desire her to fill; but if we had attempted twenty or even ten years ago to push her forward as rapidly as has been suggested by some, it could not have resulted successfully"; and "as to Dr. White's capability for criticism on such a subject, he can no more be compared to Dr. Dix in scholarly ability, sound learning, and a knowledge of educational requirements than an ordinary Western school-teacher can with a German university professor."

These personalities are in one way regrettable, as they throw no light whatever on the matter in hand; but they are in another way valuable, for they show that university management is at last beginning to excite real interest. Acrimonious discussion of such matters is better than no discussion at all. The trustees of Columbia do not at all resemble a savage who has found a watch. They rather resemble a watchmaker who has to modernize an old and badly tinkered time-piece, and has had but little experience in such work. And even if it were true that Mr. White could not hold a candle to Dr. Dix in scholarship and sound learning and so forth, his criticism of the condition of Columbia College would

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still be worth listening to, even if put into harsh language. If nobody were to be permitted to criticise Columbia College except people whom the trustees acknowledged to be Dr. Dix's equals, would there not be some danger of their becoming an odious and irresponsible oligarchy? There is no doubt that Columbia College has not exerted and does not exert in New York the influence, or anything approaching to the influence, which the colleges named by Mr. White exert in their cities respectively. One reason of this is—and the trustees might as well admit frankly what every intelligent observer in the city is saying—that until very recently no attempt was made to convert the College into an influence of any kind in the city at large. It was managed, down to about fifteen years ago, simply as a piece of property in the hands of highly respectable trustees. The education it gave was exceedingly poor, and nothing was done to make it better. Its affairs were considered private affairs, and kept as far as possible from the public. It published no accounts, and solicited no gifts and got none, and was hardly any more associated with learning in the public mind than the United States Trust Company.

The present trustees are, we believe, conscious of all this, and are trying to make up for it. Much has been done in the right direction under Dr. Barnard's Presidency. What further progress will be made will depend greatly on the kind of man selected to succeed him. We do not mean to be in any way disrespectful to Dr. Dix when we say that if Mr. Harper's view of Dr. Dix be the one generally held by the trustees—that is, if they think a man like Dr. Dix, or a man who would look up to Dr. Dix as a final authority on university matters, would be, if he could be got, the right kind of President—the further progress of the College would not be what this generation looks for. Dr. Dix is an able and useful man, but he is not what is now known as a scholar, or a man of what is now known as "sound learning," and has had no experience either in teaching or in organizing universities. He is not the kind of man, in short, excellent as he may be in his present position, that is now sought after for the headship of colleges which are meant to make a mark on the culture of the country. It is for the same reason open to doubt whether he could describe the right kind of man, if called on to do so, or has half as clear or correct an idea on the subject as Mr. White.

On the other hand, where Mr. White is distinctly unjust to Columbia College is in assuming that either the Berlin University, or the Collège de France, or any other great European university was made what it is, or converted into "a great civilizing and enlightening force," without any help from the world about them. Universities, like all other things which grow and cannot suddenly be made to order, have to be planted in a congenial soil. They have, in other words, to strike their roots in a sympathetic community which sets a high value on culture, and has a strong sense of its political and social importance. A university is in large part the product of the opinions and aspirations of the people who live around it, so that the Collège de France probably owes as much to Paris as Paris to the Collège de France, and Oxford and Cambridge as much to the English upper class as the English upper class to Oxford and Cambridge. If this be true, Columbia College has been very unfortunately situated ever since the Erie Canal was opened and New York city entered on that astonishing course of material growth which has made her what she is today. During the last fifty years the city has done nothing to foster a university, and the university has, almost inevitably under these circumstances, done but little to influence the city, and would have done but little even if the funds had grown at the same rate as the city's wealth and trade.

There is one other point which Mr. White has overlooked, and which is overlooked in almost all discussions on university making in the United States—and that is, that no university has anywhere ever become a great influence, or anything but a school for children, which was not wholly or almost wholly in the hands of the faculty or teaching body. *The faculty is the university.* If you have the right sort of faculty, you have a university, though you have only a tent to lecture in. If, on the other hand, you try to make a university out of a board of sagacious business men acting as trustees, and treat the professors as simply "hired men," bound to give the college so many hours a week, you may have a very good school for youths, but you will get no enlightening influence or force out of it for the community at large. Instead of speaking with authority on any of the great themes of the day, the college will be sneered at, as colleges are apt to be in the United States today, as the home of theorists and pedants, whose impudence in differing in opinion from millionaires merits and is sure to receive severe rebuke.

THE MORIER AFFAIR.

NOTHING so singular and discreditable has occurred in Prince Bismarck's career as the Morier incident. Sir Robert Morier, the present British Minister at St. Petersburg, is a man of the highest personal character—a man, too, of cultivated tastes and liberal opinions. Nobody in the British diplomatic service is more respected or respectable. He was, in 1870, when the Franco-German war broke out, Chargé-d'Affaires at Hesse Darmstadt, and was on terms of intimacy with the Crown Prince and Princess, and much in their society at that time, and so remained until the Emperor Frederick's death. When the Emperor's diary appeared, it showed, or seemed to show, that Bismarck, far from being the chief or only instrument of German unity, shrank, both during the war and after it, from the attempt to create the Empire, as a task too formidable to be then undertaken, and that the chief promoter of the scheme was the Crown Prince, who had to contend with his father's scrupulous conservatism and the Chancellor's timidity. This evidence, if it could not be overthrown, of course struck a serious blow at the Chancellor's reputation and prestige. He met it promptly by reporting, first, that the published version was garbled and partly forged; and, secondly, that the Crown Prince was an incompetent witness, inasmuch as the Emperor and he (the Chancellor) had to keep him ignorant of their policy and plans lest information should reach the French through the English court. He followed this up by arresting Dr. Geffcken, who had given the diary to the public, and ordering his prosecution, on what charge did not clearly appear—sometimes he was accused of falsifying documents, and at others of treason in revealing State secrets. The case against him, however, has been abandoned as untenable, and he has been set at liberty. He could undoubtedly have proved that the diary was authentic, and that he had the legal right to publish it.

This left the Chancellor, however, in rather a humiliating position. Something more had to be said or done to support the charge that the French got information about the German military policy from the Crown Prince's circle through English channels. Accordingly, one of the Emperor's aides-de-camp, a certain Major Deines, was made to say through the *Cologne Gazette* that Marshal Bazaine had told him at Madrid that the first news of the movement of the German troops on the Moselle came to him at Metz from Sir Robert Morier, the intimate friend of the Crown Prince and Princess. It seems that this story was set agoing before the Marshal's death, and reached the ears of Sir Robert Morier, who thereupon wrote to him asking if it was true that he had ever made any such assertion. The Marshal answered that it was a lie made out of whole cloth. When it appeared in print in the *Cologne Gazette*, Sir Robert, knowing, what we believe everybody in Germany knows, that the *Gazette* is a semi-official organ, and is used by the Chancellor to set afloat any stories that he may think serviceable to his policy, wrote a somewhat heated letter to Count Herbert Bismarck, as the Prince's lieutenant in the German Foreign Office, enclosing Bazaine's letter, and asking the Count to repudiate the charge publicly as a slander. To this the Count made answer that the tone of Sir Robert's letter was extraordinary, and that he must decline to step out of the usual official routine in order to oblige him.

The European press at this stage began to ring with comments on the brutality of Herbert Bismarck's manners, and his amazing readiness to insult publicly a man of Morier's standing; so he was directed by the Emperor to say dryly that the story was not credited in the German Chancellery. Morier was, however, not satisfied with this, and he was thereupon promptly slapped in the face with another charge, namely, that the Bazaine letter was forged by Morier, and its French revised in Paris before publication. This came from the Berlin *Post*, and is endorsed by the *Cologne Gazette*. The *Vossische Zeitung* and the *Weser Zeitung*, two of the most respectable German newspapers, both admit that unless proofs of this accusation are promptly forthcoming, its

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production "must fill German readers with a feeling of profound shame."

Some of the other journalistic performances of Prince Bismarck, however, make this last one seem less disgraceful than if it stood alone. During the Battenberg affair he explained to the Emperor Frederick and the Empress that the marriage of their daughter to Prince Battenberg, the recently deposed Bulgarian ruler, would undoubtedly offend Russia and destroy the good relations then existing between the German and Russian Governments. They thereupon promptly answered that all thought of it must be abandoned; but this did not prevent his subsequently giving out through his newspapers that the persistence of the Emperor Frederick, and especially of the English Empress Victoria, in forcing on this marriage was likely to compel the Chancellor to resign his office, in order to avoid responsibility for a piece of criminal folly. In fact, when the occasion calls for it, his "journalism" becomes as unscrupulous and mendacious as any on the Island of Manhattan.

INDIA UNDER LORD DUFFERIN.

LONDON, December 24, 1888.

LORD DUFFERIN'S last act before leaving India was to deliver a speech in glorification of himself and his administration. He reviewed the works of his hands and found them all exceedingly good. This vainglorious performance has a somewhat ominous resemblance to the valedictory address of another Viceroy who ruled India a little more than thirty years ago. Lord Dalhousie, when laying down the reins of government, viewed his achievements in the same optimistic light as Lord Dufferin. He left India, so he said, without a cloud in the political sky—the finances sound, the land at peace, the army loyal, the princes and the people contented. This was in 1853; and three years later the English in India were engaged in a desperate struggle for their lives—a struggle kindled by that very policy which Lord Dalhousie had reviewed with so much pride and self-complacency. It is not, perhaps, very probable that Lord Dufferin's eulogy upon himself is destined to be falsified in a like terrible fashion. This, however, is certain, that Lord Dufferin leaves to his successor an India thickly beset with perils from within and without, and that these perils are largely the direct consequence of his policy.

The position of an Indian Viceroy is a most unhappy one. It is not in his power to do much if any good, while he enjoys an almost unlimited scope in the doing of mischief. What British India stands at the present time most grievously in need of, is a thorough overhauling of the whole mechanism of its internal administration. But this is a work which no Viceroy, during his brief tenure of office, could venture to undertake. On his first arrival in the country, and for the greater part of his stay in India, he is engaged in learning his work; and during this educational interval he is, of necessity, a mere tool in the hands of the permanent officials. When he has acquired a sufficient knowledge of the intricate problem before him to form an independent judgment upon it, his first discovery is that he lacks the instruments whereby to carry improvements into effect. All administrative change involves more or less of injury to those who are carrying on the existing system; and where is an Indian Viceroy to get the leverage wherewith to overcome the passive resistance which the Bureaucracy is certain to oppose to his projects? As if to debar their viceroys from ever attempting any such quixotic undertaking, the British people have, in their wisdom, subjected the Viceroy in Calcutta to the control of an Indian Council at home, which, consisting of retired officers and civilians, is always on the side of the services against that pernicious article, a reforming viceroy. But in the field of foreign politics, a viceroy has a free hand. Wars and annexations are always popular with the services. They break the monotony of life; they offer chances of distinction to military men; they are invariably freighted with new and highly-paid appointments for the civilians. At home, too, they command a majority of suffrages. The mercantile world sees in them the prospect of new markets; the religious world, an extension of the light of true religion to regions hitherto unblessed by it; and almost all Englishmen rejoice in them from some confused and unintelligent notion that they are highly disagreeable to the Russians.

In the fields, therefore, of foreign policy, Lord Dufferin has exhibited great activity; and the net result of this activity has been to destroy along its whole length a land frontier which kind nature had made absolutely impregnable. India can no longer be defended in India. He has transferred the struggle for empire from the Indus, where we were invulnerably strong, to the deserts of Central Asia, where we are pitiably weak. This consequence of his foreign policy is not seen as yet in England. It is, indeed, vigorously denied, and from this fact of denial comes the great danger of the future. Lord Dufferin and those who are responsible for this policy know perfectly well that it is an aggressive policy, leaving us no alternative but to annex Afghanistan and attack Russia in Central Asia; but they dare not confess this to the British public. When others demonstrate the fact, they protest that they are being misunderstood or calumniated. No measures for the future are, in consequence, being made, and when the storm bursts upon us we shall be most inadequately prepared to meet it. Meanwhile, the policy of extending the Empire into countries which cannot pay the costs of their occupation is producing in India itself a state of feeling which might easily endanger the stability of the government. It was a saying of Lord Mayo that a foreign invasion would be less dangerous to British rule in India than a large and permanent increase of taxation. Lord Dufferin has practically reversed this dictum. He has largely increased taxation in order to obtain an illusory security against the mere spectre of foreign invasion. And though it is the fashion to cast ridicule upon what is known as the "Congress movement," as representing nothing but a few English-speaking natives, only those can believe this who are content to look at India through the rose-tinted spectacles used in the official world.

The movement obtains its strength and its increasing ubiquity from the prevalence of administrative abuses, which greatly and everywhere sharpen the intensity of the struggle for existence. And here, again, those whose knowledge of India goes back to a period anterior to the insurrection of 1857 cannot but recall that the optimism of the present day is but a repetition of the optimism which prevailed then. Then, as now, the voices of the undiscerning many drowned the warnings of the reflecting few; then, as now, those who had the audacity to declare that our eastern empire was not founded upon a rock, broad-based upon the affectionate loyalty of India's millions, and so forth, were set down as "croakers," "pessimists," and—that most terrible form of human depravity—"un-English." The official world of that day, just as the official world of this, was incessantly engaged in chanting its own praises, and much too self-absorbed to "read its history in the people's eyes." People here at home conceive of British rule in India as if the English officials out there were in constant and immediate contact with the great body of the people. This is not, and never can be, the case. Speaking generally, the administration of the country is carried on by a number of departments, consisting of two or three European superiors and a great number of native subordinates. If the head of a department be a man of more than ordinary intelligence, knowledge, and energy, he may possibly impress his own character upon these subordinate officials; but, in nine cases out of ten, the situation is the reverse of this. The superior leans upon his subordinates, and the action of the department upon the body of the people is then determined by the character, not of the British, but of the native element in it.

The constitution of this native element is peculiar. Probably there is no people in the world among whom the claim of kinship is recognized as so authoritative as among the natives of India. If one native obtains any sort of service, there will always be living upon his charity two or three relatives, who hope, in course of time, to enter through his assistance into some similar post. These men are called "úmedwars," or expectants. Should they succeed in effecting an entrance, then they too will have their "úmedwars" hanging upon them in the hope of sooner or later sharing in their good fortune. Nothing can surpass the noiseless, persistent perseverance with which the man in office will push the claims of those who are as yet outside of that paradise. The "úmedwar" himself is ever on the watch to promote his claims by the rendering of gratuitous service. The reward of all this labor may be long delayed, but it is bound to come at last. And when the process has gone on, as it has done in India, for the better part of a century, the result is that the native element in the state departments represents a kind of trades union, linked together by ties of blood as well as a desire for profit. A native who suffers wrong or oppression at the hand of one of these subordinate officials might as reasonably expect to discover a gold mine in his field as to obtain redress. Even if he got within hearing of the English head, his story could not hold its own against the crushing weight of testimony which the offender could adduce, to prove that it was an utter falsehood, from his departmental fellows. Or, supposing that the victim succeeded, his last state would be worse than the first. The dismissed official would be succeeded by an "úmedwar" pledged to avenge the injury done to the family by fresh injuries heaped upon the audacious complainant.

In the rural districts, in fact, there is but one way in which the peasantry—and even the native gentry—can escape from the power of these native officials, and that is by bribery. This fact it is which makes it impossible for the Indian Government to impose a new tax, or to enter upon any project whatsoever which requires native agency, without inflicting upon the people an amount of oppression and extortion which constitutes a serious political danger. Thus the land tax, the income tax, the irrigation fees, the forest charges, and a host of others have all to be collected by underpaid and irresponsible native agents; and it is no ex-

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aggeration to say that for every shilling paid to the Government, two are paid to the collector. The English officials, meanwhile, though they know well that such things are done, have no means of ascertaining when or how they are done, far less of putting a stop to them. They must work with the only tools which are at their disposal. Illustrative of this, I may quote a remark which a retired Indian civilian made to me a few years ago. He had left the Government service in order to practise as a barrister at the Calcutta bar, and, from his knowledge of the inner workings of the former mystery, he rapidly acquired a large practice. This seeing of matters from the native side came as a very startling revelation. "If," he said to me, "when I was a civilian, an angel from heaven had told me the things that I now know are habitually done under our authority in India, I would not have believed him."

Now it is easy enough to demonstrate on paper that representative institutions cannot be set up all at once in India; but paper demonstrations cannot remove or mitigate the actual daily ills which I have sketched above. The people of India are ready to throw themselves into any agitation for political change, not because they desire to overthrow the Government of the Queen, or have thought out any scheme of reform; but because they are suffering from a multitude of evils which, under the existing regimen, they know to be remediless. This fact it is which has won for the party of political reform an abundant measure of support in a surprisingly short time, and which will effectually prevent the movement from dying out. It is objected to the spokesmen and leaders of this party that they do not number among them the landed gentry, or the old aristocracy, or the native princes; but this fact is easily accounted for without supposing that these classes hold aloof because they are at heart opposed to the schemes of the reforming party. One result of British rule in India has been to create an opulent and influential class which, its prospects in life being independent of the Government, has nothing to fear from the hostility of the officials. This class consists of the native barristers and *Vakils* who practise in our courts of law, the editors and writers for the native press, English and vernacular, and the rich mercantile community residing in the great cities and seaports. Any political movement that is set up in India must at the outset derive its recruits almost wholly from these people, no others being in a position to enter upon it without serious inconvenience and even danger to themselves.

The movement is still in its infancy. It has been provoked into life by the intolerable friction everywhere caused by the existing bureaucratic régime. But it is supremely diffident of its own powers; it hardly dares to guess whither it may be going; and there is planted deep in the Indian character a profound reverence for authority. If our English officials would deign to look with a kindly and encouraging eye upon these first attempts to translate into practice the lessons which these Indian reformers have learned from us, they would be greeted with effusion and loyally accepted as leaders. Unfortunately, they are practically unanimous in denouncing the party of reform as disloyal and seditious. The moderation of their projects they hold up to ridicule as a proof of their insincerity, and thus, to the utmost of their power, they are forcing the conduct of the agitation from the party of reform to the party of revolution. Such a party, and in formidable strength, is to be found in every province of British India. In fine, the dangers which menace the future of our eastern Empire, whether from without or within, will spring in the main from the obstinate perversity which deliberately refuses to take account of the actual facts. All our writing, all our speaking about India consists of a nauseating reiteration of self-laudation. Practically, we assume that we are not simply morally impeccable, but that it is impossible for us to make a mistake. We denounce as unpatriotic or seditious or vilely ignorant any one having the audacity to hint at rocks below the surface, or signs of coming danger. We decline to take thought for the morrow. We have no policy—unless to drift blindfolded can be designated such.

ROBERT D. OSBORN, Lieut.-Colonel.

ON GRECIAN SHORES.

ALEXANDRIA, December 1, 1888.

IF the condition of the Greeks, socially, morally, and materially, has improved, as can be demonstrated to be the case—in fact has emerged from darkness since independence in 1832—the visitor at this day is still unfavorably impressed with the many elements of its lagging progress. It requires long years to reproduce forests, to restore watercourses for agricultural purposes, to teach a people modern arts, and long periods of peaceful pursuits to bring back a population. All this, apparently, is being done, if slowly. There is, too, among the better classes a profound faith in the ultimate fate and greatness of Greece. There is a politician in every house, a consuming curiosity for news and political gossip, and, in the islands still in the possession of Turkey, a deep undercurrent of resistance. A striving after improved methods, educational advancement, the erection of imposing municipal and other public buildings for the poor, sick, and orphans, and a well-to-do Church, form the better side of the picture.

There are far more Greeks living under Turkish rule than in Greece itself, the latter numbering but two millions, and there is a well-founded belief in a wide extension of territory northwards, the reclamation of the islands still in painful subjection to large Turkish garrisons, and perhaps ultimately a strip of seacoast in Asia Minor. In these places the money interests, the language, the actual inhabitants are all preponderatingly Greek. Even at Constantinople the Greeks rank second in a mixed population of a million, the Turks numbering 390,000. In fact, much of the wealth and trade, the commanding influence, in a way, of this section of the world has again come to them; and it remains to be seen what they will do with themselves in the approaching political crisis. This element may receive more consideration at St. Petersburg than elsewhere, and may yet precipitate the solution of the Eastern question. The national forces are being gradually strengthened, and this expense, coupled with a growing ambition, may prove too severe a strain upon so poor a country. Taxes upon imports are enormous, and many domestic articles commonly in use in other countries are out of reach of the masses. In this case, home production is not stimulated, for practically there is but little manufacturing or skilled handicraft carried on. There are a few macaroni factories and soap works about the Piræus, and at Syra some ship-repairing machine shops, a marine railway for ships up to 2,000 tons, and a large tannery industry. The wealth of the country is in its natural productions—wine, oil, currants, salt, tobacco, and fruits, and a limited mining industry. The fisheries and shipping interests employ many thousands. In trade and commerce the Greeks surpass in skill all the races they come in contact with, not excepting the Jews, Armenians, and Persians they compete with in Stamboul, and they handle most of the money and products in the Levant. Salt is produced by evaporating the sea-water in shallow basins, and is seen in great pyramidal heaps for miles along the shores of Attica and the adjacent islands. Olive trees are seen everywhere, and the noble groves, some of great age, are greatly sought for shade by flocks and the people. Flowers and color plants grow profusely, and gardens need only irrigation to bloom perennially, while of fruits there is apparently the whole list of semi-tropical and temperate zones.

The Corinth canal enterprise, connecting the Gulfs of Corinth and of Ægina, is progressing slowly, and is being executed by a French construction company. No time can yet be fixed for its completion, certainly not within two years; and even when finished, the saving of the three hundred miles in the water route to the Black Sea, Asia Minor, and Athens may become of less moment than the necessary charges and increased difficulties attending narrow inland waters, though the winter passage around Cape Matapan can then be avoided. The Peloponnesan railway leads up to and crosses the excavation, and gangs of natives, Montenegrins, and Italians can be seen at work. The line of the canal follows the still existing marks of the similar attempt by Nero, and the track over which small vessels have been transported for centuries. It is about five miles in length, and unexpected difficulties are being met with in the rock formations. There is also a "railway development" at hand, judging from controversies regarding privileges, concessions, plans, and projects, formulated by the newspapers. More railways and roads are needed, the latter certainly; the haste in connection with the former, their extension in a grand system conformably to the necessities of modern times and the country, all wear the familiar guise of promoters and speculators. The present railways seem to be fairly equal to the necessities of the country, and the sea washes all sides of a land not a long distance across. The rolling-stock is English, and, according to the usual standard, the service is not what it should be.

One must rough it to some extent when travelling in Greece, and more than primitive accommodation cannot be expected outside of Athens. Even in that city the water supply is lamentably deficient, the springs and wells being often brackish, and potable water is sold on the streets. At this time, however, great improvements are being effected in the capital city; streets are being widened and macadamized, new buildings are going up, and there is a struggling attempt to throw off the inertia and provincialism of the usual dusty town. The new exhibition building erected at one extremity of the royal gardens in honor of the King's twenty-fifth anniversary is a marble-faced portico, with wings in plaster, facing the great Corinthian columns of the old temple of Olympian Zeus, and is sadly dwarfed in the presence of the mute giants in sight on all sides. The dusty slope towards the Ilyssus is more or less parked, containing an artificial basin; but the grounds were, when I saw them, in confusion consequent upon hurried preparation and the work of caring for arriving exhibits. The number of articles of domestic manufacture that will be shown should indeed point a moral.

Excavations on the Acropolis are continuing, and the work at the National Museum and the Polytechnic goes slowly on. The Schliemann collection at the latter is the great attraction, and to the Museum are added the best of the finds as they occur in the country at large.

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Half the building is still closed to visitors. In the broad space between the building and the street is enough more material to stock an ordinary museum elsewhere, including sarcophagi, pieces of columns, capitals, reliefs, and figures in considerable numbers. These two buildings are a great credit to the state in every respect, and are well designed to preserve for museum and educational purposes the best of the remnants left of classic Greece. They are spacious, have marble facings or linings, and are of appropriate classic type externally. The Museum has but one floor; the Polytechnic is more elaborate, consisting of two lateral colonnades and a central quadrangle of two floors, with an ornate double marble stairway externally. The material is beautiful Pentelic marble, and the white, gleaming surfaces and numerous columns in a fine open section of the city form an impressive picture.

From Athens to the Piræus the train passes vineyards, lovely gardens and groves, stopping at Phalerum, the summer resort. Phalerum, bay and shore, is a beautiful spot, has now a large, complete hotel, long rows of bathing-houses, pretty groves, and the bluest of waters. From the beach one sees Mt. Hymettus, the Acropolis, and the Theseum, with Athens on the left, and on the right the terraced heights of Elias and Munychia. Piræus is a large, straggling seaport town, with wide busy quays and unclean streets, and surrounds the circular, roomy, and convenient harbor. A few traces only of the old walls running down from Athens seven miles away are found now, unless search is made for them. They enclosed Athens, a strip of country several hundred yards wide, and this magnificent natural basin, besides two smaller ports, Zea and Munychia, over the hill to the left towards Phalerum, where are still seen the stone galley-ways, a theatre hewn out of the rock, and the best remains of the wall itself. A tramway; noisy, dirty shops and cafés; fleets of small trading vessels of quaint old type; motley groups in fustanella, white stockings, and embroidered jackets; black eyes and fine handsome faces; coffee-sipping and mastic-drinking; and the people always in the streets—are passing memories of Piræus. A few hours after leaving this port, in passing Cape Colonna, the remaining upright columns and part of the architrave of the ancient Temple of Athena, splendidly crowning the hill, are plainly seen standing out in the purest white from the green background.

The Greek islands are both richer and poorer than the mainland. Some, like the Ionian group, are of wonderful fertility and healthfulness; others, often mere barren rocks, with miserable remnants of ignorant humanity clinging to them. Corfu is much frequented by invalids, by yachtsmen and sportsmen, and the fall and winter months bring many outdoor livers and wild-boar hunters. The neighboring mainland of Albania and Epirus is also full of game, the climate is mild, and there is every facility and comfort of existence attainable. The Ulysses Rock, a favorite resort of the Austrian Empress, beautifully conserved by a few monks; the mulberry and olive groves; the great variety and profusion of fruits; the drives, and King George's residence and park, all combine highly to favor the island. Among the monuments is one of Capodistrias, the first President of Greece. The exportations of figs, oranges, olive-oil, wine, honey, currants, silk, and cotton continue large, and the sea fisheries are of importance. The stout old walls and citadel that successfully withstood Islam, the Italian element in the population, and the peculiar dialect give the city a character quite its own. The city has a population of 28,000; the island, 85,000.

Cephalonia and Zante are in many respects also favored islands, and are much sought by winter yachtsmen and invalids. The former has in recent years been the rendezvous of the English fleet in the Mediterranean under the Duke of Edinburgh, as offering superior facilities for the many needs of the force. Zante, the southernmost of the group, does not greatly differ from Cephalonia in the character of its population, its fertility, and healthful environment. A part of the island is composed of blue mud and clay—in places whole hills are of this material—and in the interior are found bubbling wells of mud mixed with a crude bitumen or asphalt. The town is on the shore of an open bay, the hill behind it being crowned by a large old Venetian fortification, now used as a general prison. The late Minister of the Interior of Greece was from this town; and upon his decease (at Athens of malarial fever) the people omitted for some weeks all amusements, music on the promenade, and theatricals. Like nearly all Greek towns, the necessity of public sanitation is a matter not yet entertained, and white-faced children with diseased eyes are far too common. In 1887 there were exported 8,000 tons of currants, and a great quantity of wine, much of this appearing in Europe as port. These wines are sweet and heavy, as a rule, and, with the introduction of better methods, could be improved, beyond doubt.

Crete, still under Turkey and hardly yet recovered from the last insurrection and its repressive horrors, is vainly hoping for the morning. For the present it remains undeveloped, with a suspicious, uneasy people, living in fear of the ill-paid, ragged garrison of 10,000 soldiers. It is, from its position and superior natural resources, capable of supporting a large population, and has even now a considerable trade in silk, wine, oil, fruits, and chestnuts. Candia, the largest town (30,000 population), and the Governor's residence, is an agricultural community. The roads are bad, excepting near the principal port of entry, Canea, and Suda Bay on the northern side of the island. The latter is one of the finest and largest harbors in the Orient, but is lacking in life and activity, containing only a small, desolate village and a decaying naval arsenal. Steamers come to this bay in winter, in summer lying off the shallow small basin of Canea. The Ottoman steamers from Tripoli to Constantinople stop here, and slaves are occasionally found aboard and set free by the English consular authorities, whose cavass, or dragoman, keeps track of the business. The considerable number of blacks about are said to be of this description: they have in such cases the option of returning to Africa. The old Venetian walls, moats, naval arsenal, and citadel are still of imposing strength and appearance. Canea has about 12,000 inhabitants, and its roughly cobbled, narrow, unclean streets, fish markets, leather workers, and motley crowds render it unattractive, though it has a decidedly Oriental appearance. Passing up a street to the Governor's palace, I noticed a hive of notaries and lawyers, and upon inquiry learned that these men of the law and pleaders have sprung into existence only since 1878, previous to which time justice inclined towards the longer purse. It is believed that Crete will richly reward future efforts at excavations, the people as a rule observing great secrecy in regard to this matter, especially in the disposing of such articles as they may have from time to time in their possession.

Syra, the centre of the Cyclades, is the second port of the kingdom, and is noted for its shipping and tannery interests. The town is built along the bay shores and on two cone-like hills, each surmounted by a large church—one Roman Catholic, the other the Greek Church—and in its blue and white limewash gleams like a stage picture. In the time since the independence it has risen from a mean village to be the chief port of the whole group. Activity is noted in its little shipyards, and all the steamers to the East touch here. New roads about the island are being constructed, the city is erecting a large, pretentious municipal building of marble, and there are hospitals, asylums, and schools. A good water supply is lacking, five cents the gallon being the cost of pure water on the streets; each house has under it a rock cistern, collecting the year's supply in the few rainy months of the year. The lower levels and streets almost rival a Chinese city in uncleanliness and smells. Mount Pyrgos, immediately back of the town, gives one a view of the whole group of the Cyclades and Greece itself. At certain seasons, migrating quail rest on Syra to such an extent that they are slaughtered by the thousands. The rocky island is treeless, has but little rainfall and a warm climate. Smallpox has recently found many victims, and still exists, and fevers are common.

Milo contains the largest perfectly enclosed harbor in the Mediterranean, but one meets here with a desolate picture. The straggling little town of Castron clings around the peak of a considerable hill far above the ruins of the ancient Melos, whence the celebrated Venus was taken in 1820. In this great bay the Venetians annihilated the Turks in a memorable sea fight in 1661. The island is volcanic, has a small mining, sulphur, and fishing industry, and contains not over 3,500 inhabitants. Samos, though a principality tributary to Turkey, is wholly Greek. It is fairly prosperous and content under its Christian prince, Alexander Kara Theodora, who was one of the Turkish Commissioners at the Berlin Congress. Since that time he has taken no further part in Turkish imperial affairs and has resided here—a kind of polite banishment. The annual tribute is £2,000. Samos is rich in classical remains, and, like many of these islands, has not been completely investigated. It is a curious fact that the natives generally in this part of the world have a greatly exaggerated idea regarding the character and value of the still undiscovered remains of antiquity. The principal ruins here are a Temple of Juno, and the rock aqueduct described in the *Nation* at the time of its discovery some seven years ago (Nos. 908, 909). The port of Bathi, the Prince's residence, has a picturesque, rock-bound harbor and the quaintest of broad ancient quays. The trade is mainly in the superior wine and tobacco produced, the former rivalling the best port, and the latter ranking with the best grown in Yenidge and Latakiya. Tenedos and Rhodes still retain their mediæval features, the latter especially, with its tunnel-like passages and streets, enormous walls, bastions, and defences, and crowded town. Rhodes is among the most fertile and beautiful islands in the Levant, and, like Samos, has many pretty little villages scattered about on its verdant slopes.

Many of the islands are mere barren rocks, some with villages clinging to the highest peaks crowned by crumbling castles and fortifications, or with groups of white clusters of houses far up on the rare green pastures. The skies are seldom unkind, there are no extremes of climate, the mariner sails on for months without losing sight of land, threading the wonderful storied archipelago with its traces of the

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old time. The scenes of to-day seem to belong to another world. C. A. SIEGFRIED.

Correspondence.

A PATRIOTIC PROTEST FROM ABROAD.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Reports have reached Europe since the recent election at home which reveal such widespread and shameless bribery that every honest American cannot but feel disgusted and indignant. Something *must* be done, and the *Nation* thinks something *will* be done, to prevent further disgrace and secure better methods and laws governing our elections.

It is with this hope and assurance of yours, Mr. Editor, that a number of American teachers and students in Berlin and Leipzig, irrespective of party, wish to express their sympathy, pledging at the same time their hearty coöperation with all who will help on reform. We believe that continued indifference would bring us to a condition more wretched than that of any nation in Europe. We should not even be so fortunate as to fall into the hands of pedantic and military bureaucrats, where we should at least be safe, much as we might fret under their paternal guardianship and their martinetism; but, as the *Nation* has said, we should be at the mercy of political auctioneers who would sell our Government to the highest bidders.

Against running such risks we protest. We will no longer be cheated out of the full value of our votes by the corrupt of any party whatever. We call for a strictly secret ballot, for stringent laws against bribery, and for their vigorous enforcement; and we hope to unite with our fellow-teachers and fellow-students at home—in fact, with the honest and intelligent of all parties—in securing these safeguards, whether it be by joining reform clubs already in existence and organizing new ones in every county and town, or by other practical agitation.

At present, our boasted universal suffrage is laughed at in Europe. The papers and intelligent observers see clearly that it is the bribed legions and their "bosses" who hold the balance of power in our national elections, and the purchasable "blocks of five" who can turn the scale in many a State and county election.

Of course, there are those who will call us doctrinaires or academic idealists; but we are not quite ready to succumb to the realism of fraud and rascality simply because the rascals are wide awake and the honest seem hard to rouse.

[Signed by 27 American teachers and students in Berlin and Leipzig, representing 4 different political parties, 13 different States, North and South, East and West, and 11 different colleges.]

BERLIN, December 25, 1888.

INSIDE A CANADIAN POLLING-BOOTH.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In Canada the Australian ballot system has been in force for the past fourteen years. We have grown familiar with it, and what astonishes me most is how any one can call it complex, or, having once seen it, could possibly endure to work with any other. It was adopted in the Dominion in 1874, and for the provincial elections of this province a couple of years later. The first election held under it in this city was in January, 1877. I was one of the presiding officers there. Since that time we have had fully a dozen elections, Provincial and Federal, and at every one of them I have spent the day in some capacity, either as presiding officer or candidates' agent, inside a polling-booth, generally in a city district, but sometimes in a rural one. Possibly a description of the practical working of the act may be interesting to readers in the United States.

Our nominations are now in the simplest form. Twenty-five electors can nominate a candidate by nomination in writing provided a deposit of $200 accompanies it. This sum is forfeited in case the candidate fails to poll half the vote of the successful candidate. If only as many nominations are made as there are seats to be filled, the returning officer returns them as elected by acclamation. If more, he issues a proclamation that a poll will be held, and containing the names of the candidates in alphabetical order, with their occupations and residence. The day of polling is fixed by the act for the seventh day from nominations. Then the returning officer proceeds to make his preparations for a poll. Of course he has known long beforehand whether or not the regular parties intend making nominations, and has made his preparations accordingly. The district has already been divided off into polling-sections by the revising barrister who makes up the electoral lists. These polling-sections must not contain more than 300 electors, and in practice (here at least) it has been found most convenient to keep them smaller than 200. These small polling-sections are the most effectual safeguard against disturbance and disorder yet discovered.

In each of these sections the returning officer hunts up a conveniently situated house or shop to serve as a polling-booth, and arranges the space inside so that one portion is completely guarded from observation, both from inside and outside. Then he appoints a presiding officer and a clerk for each district. He swears in the presiding officers and furnishes each with his ballot-box, a certified list of the electors in his district, a poll-book, a supply of ballot-paper and lead-pencils, and a number of printed directions (given in a schedule to the act), directing voters how to mark their papers, which the presiding officer sticks up about the booth. A constable is appointed for each booth. The booths open at nine and close at five. A little before the time of opening the presiding officer and his clerk arrive. The former swears in the latter. The agents, if they are wise, will also take care to be on hand sharp on time. Each candidate appoints two agents in writing. In practice the appointment is left with the committee of the district: the candidates sign a number of blanks, the committee arrange who are to be agents, and fill in their names. Of these two agents one requires to be sworn not to reveal the names of the candidates for whom any of the electors may mark their ballot-papers in his presence. This is for the protection of the illiterates and other incapables. The sworn agent is obliged to remain in the booth till it closes. The unsworn one can go in and out, and practically serves as the medium of communication between the sworn man and his party outside. Each agent of course has been "posted" by his district committee, and furnished with a list of electors marked with hieroglyphics to designate "for," "against," "doubtful," "dead," etc., etc. The presiding officer, poll-clerk, constable, and agents are the only persons allowed within the booth. There are no provisions preventing persons congregating about the polling-booths—a matter which I see most of your correspondents attach great importance to. There are one or two provisions for the suppression of disorder, conferring the powers of a magistrate upon the presiding officer, etc. But in practice it is found that the small polling-district and the secret voting do away with all temptation to riot. In former times here, with open voting and a few large sections, we had furious fights about the booths. Now the only signs of a booth are three or four men talking about the door and a couple of cabs drawn up. There is nothing to do outside, and the "worker" who could find no better employment than standing all day outside a booth watching the voters go in and out the door would not find much appreciation of his services in the party. Last of all, the presiding officer opens his ballot-box, exhibits it to the agents in the manner of a stage conjuror, opens the slide, locks the box up, and deposits it on the table.

These preliminaries over, the constable is directed to open the doors, announce the poll open, and admit the voters one at a time. One enters and presents himself at the table. The presiding officer asks his name, and looks to see if it is on his certified list. If it is not, as sometimes happens, the voter goes off to hunt up the right district; but this seldom happens. If the name is on the list, the poll-clerk enters it on his book, with the occupation and a number, and if no objection is taken by the agents, the presiding officer hands him a ballot-paper. The ballot is in a form prescribed in the act. Here is one of the official papers from the last Dominion election in this city:

Election for the Electoral District of Halifax, 1887

FULLER.

I. H. H. Fuller, City and County of Halifax, Merchant.

JONES.

II. Hon. A. G. Jones, City and County of Halifax, Merchant.

KENNY.

III. Thomas E. Kenny, City and County of Halifax, Merchant.

STAIRS.

IV. John F. Stairs, of the Town of Dartmouth, Manufacturer.

The portion below the perforated line is the counterfoil. Its use is to counteract the device mentioned by your Louisville correspondent, viz., putting in a blank and bringing out the official paper. The presiding officer puts his initials on the back of the ballot so as to be visible when the paper is folded up. The poll-clerk numbers the voter on his poll-book, and the presiding officer puts the same num-

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ber on the counterfoil. In practice I have always found it the best plan to fold the ballot before handing it to the voter, and tell him to fold it in the same creases. He is apt to fold it up in such a tangle that it is necessary to open it to tear off the counterfoil.

The names on the ballot are required to be printed in alphabetical order. There is no envelope. At first we had them; but they were after one trial unanimously voted an unnecessary nuisance, affording an opportunity to commit frauds such as your Louisville correspondent describes. If no objection is raised by the agents, the voter retires with his ballot into the screened-off apartment, where he finds a table, a couple of lead-pencils, and, pasted on the wall, the official directions how to mark his ballot. He puts a cross to the right of the name or names he wishes to vote for, taking care not to cross the lines or to mark more names than there are seats to be filled. Then he folds up the paper and brings it back to the presiding officer, who looks at the number on the counterfoil to see that it is the same paper that the voter received, and then tears off the counterfoil and puts the ballot into the box. Then the voter must leave the booth.

Of course, things do not always go as smoothly as this. Your voter may be unable to read. If so, he declares his inability and his desire to have his ballot marked for him. The officer swears him to the truth of his statement and retires with him, accompanied by the sworn agents, to the private compartment, where he marks the ballot for the names told him by the voter; or a man may come forward claiming to be some one whom you have been instructed is dead or away. Thereupon, you, being an agent, act according to circumstances. In the last resort, you can ask the officer to put the oath to him. You can also challenge and swear on suspicion of bribery. It is not common to do either without just suspicion, as retaliation is inevitable and unpleasant. The poll-clerk makes a minute in his poll-book opposite the voter's name of whether he voted, and of any objection, and whether he took the oath or refused it.

At five o'clock the poll is closed, the box opened, and the votes counted in the presence of the agents. If any paper appears marked so that it is not clear for whom it is intended, or for more names than there are seats to fill, or with a "distinguishing mark," any agent can take an objection. Thereupon a number is put on the ballot, and a record of the objection made in the poll-book, and the presiding officer has to decide whether to count it or reject it, a record of which decision is also made. Then the presiding officer puts the ballots for each candidate — those spoiled, those rejected, and those unused—into separate envelopes and puts them back into the box. He makes out a statement, for which official blanks are provided him, showing the votes cast for each candidate and the number rejected; gives one to each candidate, keeps one himself, and pastes one in the back of his poll-book. Then he and his clerk swear before some justice of the peace, who has been notified to be on hand, that they have duly discharged their duties; and a certificate of this oath also goes in the back of the poll-book. Then poll-book and voters' list go into the box, the box itself is locked and sealed and taken back to the returning officers.

There seem to be a good many details here, but in reality they are very simple, and very few mistakes are made. You want honest and fairly well-educated men for presiding officers. On the practical working of the system:

(1.) As to secrecy, there can be no two minds. No one can have the least notion how any voter has marked his ballot.

(2.) As to preventing disorder, it is equally effectual, both outside and inside the booths. Election day with us has become absolutely one of the quietest days of the year until night.

(3.) As to simplicity of working, there can be no just complaint. There was a little difficulty at first, though nothing like what was predicted. But now very few mistakes are made or votes thrown away. Even the illiterates nearly all learn to mark their ballots without making mistakes.

(4.) As to preventing bribery, it is not such a success as we should like. It has done a good deal; nevertheless, the most of our bribable electors, especially in the country, make it a curious point of honor to vote the way they have been paid to. As a preventive of corruption, the Corrupt Practices Act, taken from the English act, with its speedy trial by a judge sitting in the constituency, is far and away more effectual than the ballot.

BLUENOSE.

HALIFAX, N. S., December 28.

POSTMASTER-GENERAL VILAS AND CLEVELAND'S DEFEAT.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The friends of civil-service reform should not fail to hold up continually the fact that one of the efficient causes of Mr. Cleveland's failure of reëlection was that he did not live up to his pledges with regard to the civil service, notably in the Post-office Department. The pressure brought to bear on him from the political machine was, doubtless, overwhelming; but the changes made materially impaired the efficiency of the service, thus discrediting the Administration with many who would otherwise have been disposed to look favorably upon it. Many instances of this have come under my notice. A florist, doing a large business by mail, stated to me the other day that half his catalogues sent to one of the "pivotal States" had gone amiss this year, very much to his loss and to the great disgust of his regular customers. He explained this on the ground that the State was a doubtful one, and that the Administration had made so many changes in the post-offices throughout the State in order to make itself "solid with the boys." Over a year ago a leading business firm of this city mailed a draft on a customer to a bank in another city for collection. On the envelope was printed the firm name and the usual "to be returned in five days if not called for." For upwards of a year they could get no trace of it. Finally it turned up. Some new clerk had sent it off to another State than that to which it was plainly directed, and there it had lain. Efficient and popular carriers on city routes have been displaced to give green "henchmen" a job, to the great annoyance of the public. A "clean sweep" was made in the post-office of a town of say six or eight thousand inhabitants in this State. The aged mother of the wife of a fairly well-known citizen sent a letter asking to be met a week later at the depot, as she was coming on a night train. The letter lay in the post-office because neither the postmaster nor his clerks were acquainted with the people of the town, and the old lady was put to the annoyance of finding her way about a strange town at night.

These are things to which the public was not accustomed under the old régime—at least to any such extent; and every such occurrence has made votes against the Administration. So much trouble has been made by these changes in at least one town in northern Ohio, and so many are the aspirants for the place under the new Administration, that the people of that town are asking that the candidates be voted on, and that all except the one receiving the highest number of votes withdraw their application.—Sincerely,

L. B. TUCKERMAN.

CLEVELAND, O., December 27, 1888.

A PLEA IN ABATEMENT.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: On Tuesday last, Collector Saltonstall of Boston was the recipient of a simple but eloquent testimonial from the employees of the Custom House. In responding, the Collector referred to civil-service reform as follows:

"There is one word for the Civil-Service Law which I must say, and I hope I shall not be misunderstood. It is absolutely impossible to take so broad a departure as this law and expect perfection in the first place; and it is impossible to expect that this law should be supported and carried out in the great portions of the enormous territory of the United States where no sentiment of that sort has as yet been planted. But it has been planted here. It is in Boston that we expect all these great movements of reform to take their origin, and I may say that it is Boston that in the future people will point to as the place where the planting of this great reform took place with effect. No thanks to me—not at all. In doing this and in saying this, I take no credit to myself. It is the community which demanded it, and no one who fills my shoes hereafter will be permitted to go back upon that reform."

The reason I call your attention to this significant quotation from the utterances of a man respected alike by Republicans and Democrats is, that nearly a year ago I gave you my reasons for believing, contrary to your expressed views, that President Cleveland *could not if he would* effect the changes demanded of him in Maryland and elsewhere. These reasons referred to a public opinion that was sufficient to support the President in his appointments, and to furnish evidence of that support in the nomination and election of State and city officials in favor of the reform in the service. This has never been possible in Maryland or Indiana, or advocated with success in any State except Massachusetts, where a State law has been in force for several years past, and the people know the worth of the President's efforts in this direction. It seems now that here is better authority for taking this view of the President's position and so-called failure to carry out his promises.

If there is any truth in Collector Saltonstall's observations on this point, I would like to see the *Nation* publicly admit it, since it has seemed to me inconsistent that President Cleveland should be the only one who has been aware of the difficulty of enforcing this law and reform, while the *Nation* has, during the past fifteen years that I have subscribed for it, shown a general and sound understanding and impartial fairness in its criticisms of the national administration.

Respectfully, BENJ. SPAULDING.

BOSTON, January 5, 1889.

[We must still think that our correspondent's mind is not quite clear on this subject. Does he mean that the President was bound to gauge the public sentiment of the locality before making any given appointment in the Federal service? Does he think Collector Saltonstall's appointment proved a sentiment adverse to the spoils system on the part of a majority of the voters in Massachusetts, any more than Postmaster Pearson's retention here had a like significance? Does he feel sure that evasions of the law by Mr.

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Saltonstall's successor will be impossible? Will he deny that every one of this Administration's shortcomings will serve as a precedent for Gen. Harrison's, without regard to locality; or, in other words, that the appearance of a Republican Rasin in Boston can be justified by the appointment of a Democratic Rasin in Baltimore?—Ed. Nation.]

TURKISH MISSIONS ONCE MORE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I have read the very satisfactory replies made by your correspondents to a paragraph in the *Nation* of December 13, regarding American missions in Turkey, and would only ask to correct (from my personal knowledge) certain statements of fact.

I think a false impression will certainly be made by the reference to missionary funds as devoted to the "conversion of one sect of Christians to another" and to "proselytizing Armenian Christians." It should be remembered that the first missionaries had no thought of introducing a new sect. They aimed to work for the enlightenment of the old churches and for the promotion of reforms within them. Only the act of the old churches themselves caused any departure from this plan. The Gregorian Church persecuted and excommunicated all sympathizers with evangelical views, and, by maintaining this attitude of intolerance, forced the formation of a new church organization, which has since been steadily developing; and even now—while missionary work is, and must be, mainly along the lines of the Protestant organization—a constant and beneficial influence is exerted over the old churches, and this influence is a legitimate and desirable result of American missionary effort.

It is said of the Protestant communities in general that they are disposed to break with the missionaries and "threaten to return to the Orthodox American Church, unless they are allowed the management of the funds collected for them in America." Now, there is absolutely no movement in favor of a return to the old church; and disaffection and ill-feeling towards the missionaries is by no means the spirit of the communities anywhere, and is limited to a few isolated individuals, whose influence is very slight.

Again, we are told that Robert College, "in order to preserve its freedom of action, has been obliged to cut itself loose from all connection with the missionary societies." The facts, however, are that Robert College was founded by a New York merchant (the late Mr. C. R. Robert), it never had any formal connection whatever with any missionary organization, and has never received a cent from any missionary funds. It was, however, established as a distinctively Christian college, and has always been in sympathy with missionary work.

Respectfully yours, F. M. Herrick.

New York, January 3, 1888.

FRENCH LEGISLATIVE COMMITTEES AND BUREAUS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: A passing reference on the first page of the fifteenth chapter of Mr. Bryce's book, 'The American Commonwealth,' calls to my mind a subject upon which information may be of interest to some readers of the *Nation*, viz., the system of Bureaus and Commissions in use for the expedition of business in the French Houses. Mr. Bryce speaks of the Bureaus as being somewhat similar to the American Committees of Congress. This, if not explained, would convey a false impression, although most of Mr. Bryce's references to French constitutional and political matters are as accurate as was to be expected of a writer of such power, clearness of mind, and wealth of information. Under the general name of "bureaus" Mr. Bryce evidently alludes to both the bureaus and commissions, the latter much more important than the former. In fact, except in one important particular, the bureaus are merely the agency employed for the appointment of commissions—nothing else.

What is most likely to strike an American or Englishman as strange in French parliamentary life is, that the bureaus are the creation of chance. At the beginning of every month both the Senate and House are divided into a number of bureaus, always an odd number—now nine in the Senate, eleven in the House—fixed by the rules adopted by each house in its first session. The formation of the bureaus is a perfect lottery, the name of each member being drawn in turn, and assigned to some bureau by the rank it occupies in the drawing. This drawing, formerly a very tedious operation, is now performed by a very ingenious contrivance, the invention of a late member of the House, M. Tamisier.

As soon as their membership has been fixed the bureaus meet, and organize by the election in each of them of a president or chairman and a secretary. They also elect the members of the three monthly commissions or committees, viz., on Parliamentary Initiative, on Furloughs, and on Local Bills. Then, whenever a special commission has to be appointed for the examination of a Government bill, a bill brought from the other house, a bill introduced by a member and for which urgency has been declared, or which has been *taken into consideration* after being reported, favorably or not, from the Commission on Parliamentary Initiative, each Bureau elects one, or two, or three members of that Commission, as the house may direct. Such election is usually preceded by a summary discussion, in which the members who desire to be elected members of the Commission take part, and state whether they are for or against the bill, or non-committal.

The real work is done in the Commission. As soon as it is elected it organizes by the election of a chairman and secretary, and, if large, like the *Commission du Budget*, which usually consists of three members per Bureau, divides into sous-commissions. Bills are not necessarily reported by the chairman of the Commission, but by a special *rapporteur;* but it often happens that the Commission elects the same member as *rapporteur* who was originally elected chairman. The *Commission du Budget* usually elects several *rapporteurs*—first, a *rapporteur général*, second, one *rapporteur spécial* for the budget of each ministry.

It thus appears that most of what is done here by the Committees of Congress is done in France by the Commissions, and not by the Bureaus. In one instance, however, the Bureaus act as real committees, viz., in examining the credentials of new members. The departments and colonies of France are allotted among the Bureaus, and each Bureau reports to the full House, through a specially-elected *rapporteur*, on the admission or non-admission of each member returned as elected, fulfilling thus somewhat the same duties as the American Committee on Privileges and Elections.

Yours truly, A. C.

Harvard University, Dec. 30, 1888.

COMPLETE PROTECTION FOR ACTORS

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I trust that in framing the proposed law for the protection of American actors Congress will not fail to make it complete, by adding a section compelling the American people to buy tickets to the theatrical performances. Curiously enough, an analogous omission is invariably made by legislators in "usury" laws. They always omit a section compelling the capitalist to lend his money to those in whose interest the law is supposed to be made.—Respectfully, T. H.

Philadelphia, December 29, 1888.

SHORTCOMINGS OF THE 'ENCYCLOPÆDIA BRITANNICA.'

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In your last number you review the 'Encyclopædia Britannica,' and conclude with: "The 'Britannica' is a highly undigested work for scholars." The criticism I think is just. It is a most valuable work, but not abreast with the times. Many subjects are treated at too great a length, and others not at all. As an illustration may serve the subject "Algebra," to which in my edition forty five pages are devoted. Any one who possesses the Encyclopædia is supposed to have received a fair education; and as elementary algebra is taught in the public schools, there is no occasion to go into such details as giving the rules for addition, subtraction, etc. Undoubtedly every possessor of the Encyclopædia is possessor of a text-book on algebra also. On the other hand, I have been frequently disappointed in turning to the work for a certain subject in not finding it. For example, "Photogrammetry" is not to be found therein, although it is an art that has been actively pursued for more than fifteen years, and is of the highest import. Why it should be found in 'Brockhaus' Conversations-Lexikon,' a less pretentious work, and not in the 'Britannica,' I fail to see. Many more examples could be cited.

Yours truly, Otto J. Klotz.

Preston, Ont., January 2, 1889.

Notes.

Macmillan & Co. have in press a new work on Darwinism, by Dr. Alfred Russel Wallace, which promises to have much scientific significance.

Longmans, Green & Co. will shortly issue 'The Great War Syndicate,' by Frank R. Stockton; and 'Social Progress,' by Daniel Greenleaf Thompson, President of the Nineteenth Century Club of this city.

Harper & Bros. make an important and welcome announcement of a 'Latin Dictionary for Schools,' by Charlton T. Lewis, who has not abridged the larger dictionary edited by him in connection with the late Dr. Charles Short, but has made an entirely new and independent work. In choosing illustrations, the earliest books read by schoolboys have been preferred, as, Cæsar's Gallic War, Cicero's Catilinian Orations, Virgil's Æneid, etc. Such a work has been long needed and will be a great boon.

The late Laurence Oliphant's 'Scientific Religion; or, Higher Possibilities of Life and Practice,' is to be reprinted forthwith by Chas. A. Wenborne, Buffalo, N. Y., in an authorized edition.

Two new volumes in the "Canterbury Poets" series come to us from Walter Scott (New York: T. Whittaker), viz., 'Poems of Wild Life' and Milton's 'Paradise Regained and Minor Poems.' The first collection has been made by Mr. Chas. G. D. Roberts, and aims to exhibit the unconventional muse who flourishes on the border between barbarism and advanc-

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ing civilization. As a matter of course, he draws mostly from our American anthology, but without confining himself to Joaquin Miller or Walt Whitman (from Bret Harte he was precluded by copyright): Bryant, Fawcett, De Kay, Lanier, Gilder, John Boyle O'Reilly, Stedman, Stoddard, also occur, among many Canadian versifiers, like the editor himself, and even Thomas Pringle and the Swedish Tegnér. The flavor of this little volume, as may be judged, is fresh and pronounced. The Milton is another happy selection, with the sonnets and translations appended, "On the Morning of Christ's Nativity," "Il Penseroso," "L'Allegro," "Comus," "Lycidas," "Samson Agonistes," and "Paradise Regained"—the *pièce de résistance*: all in pocket compass.

From the same London and American publishers we have two more volumes of the "Camelot Series"—translations of the 'Encheiridion' of Epictetus and of some of the 'Dissertations' and 'Fragments,' by T. W. Rolleston, with a rather discreditable list of errata, English and Greek; and essays on Spenser, Shakspere, Milton, Wordsworth, and Keats, on Lessing, and on Rousseau and the Sentimentalists, by James Russell Lowell—all, save the Lessing, originally lectures for his college classes. Mr. Lowell furnishes "an apology for a preface," in which he confesses to small experience in preface writing and no great regard for what, after all, is an art like any other. Thirty years have, as he says, made the Professor bearing his name a stranger to him; but the public know that a much longer period is required to make his literary criticism antiquated or charmless.

From Lowell to Dante is a natural transition, and we proceed to remark a flattering notice of Fay's 'Concordance of the Divina Commedia,' by A. Pagliani, in the Florence *Nazione* for December 6; "ottimo libro," "non dubbia utilità," "non poco importanza filologica," are some of his phrases. Further, we observe in the Milan *Perseveranza* of December 19 mention of a youth's commentary on the "Purgatory"—'Il Purgatorio di Dante dichiarato ai giovani da Angelo De Gubernatis' (Florence: Luigi Niccolai). De Gubernatis published last year the "Paradiso" in a uniform style of typography and exposition, believing that the best introduction to Dante for the young is in the order he pursues. The enterprise was undertaken for the sake of his son and namesake. Finally, in the *Perseveranza*'s monthly *Rivista Scientifico-Letteraria* for July, Policarpo Petrocchi discusses adversely Stefano Grosso's dissertation on three variants in a codex of the 'Commedia' recently discovered in Udine by Vincenzo Ioppi.

Prof. Paolo Mantegazza, the famous Italian scientist, has just issued the first part of his work on the nervousness of the present age and its causes. The volume is called 'Il Secolo Tartufo.' The immediate publication of another work by the same author is announced—the latest of a series of metaphysical studies—'Fisiologia dell' Odio.'

In the fourth number of the Journal of the British and American Archæological Society of Rome is printed a paper read by Mr. W. J. Stillman on "Prehistoric Walls in Greece and Italy," beginning with Monte Leone, concerning which fortified peninsula he has written in these columns. He classifies the varieties of construction in these walls (by the aid of which he assigns antiquity in this order to Tiryns, Mykenæ, Argos, and Corinth), and indicates their distribution on the Italian peninsula, in the Peloponnesus and the isles of Greece, and on the shore of Asia Minor. His theory is of a civilization autocthonous in Italy, and spreading southeasterly, instead of a counter current from Egypt or Phœnicia, the absence of metal tool-marks on the stones being conclusive in his eyes.

Mr. Edward Roth's 'Complete Index to Littell's Living Age' reaches the word *Tale* in the department of Fiction (Philadelphia, No. 1135 Pine Street.)

Nos. 2 and 3 of the Publications of the American Statistical Association contain a paper on "Park Areas and Open Spaces in American and European Cities," by E. R. L. Gould, and a very useful "Key to the Publications of the U. S. Census, 1790–1887," with occasional references to other statistical works, and an historical sketch of our census, by Edward Clark Lunt.

Mr. Christern sends us the first number of the illustrated paper, *L'Exposition de Paris de* 1889, conformable to its predecessor of 1878. It contains a bird's-eye view of the grounds and buildings in their final shape, portraits of Eiffel and other engineers, views of the great tower, etc., etc.

From this date, beginning its eleventh volume, the *American Chemical Journal*, issued by the Publication Agency of Johns Hopkins University, will appear in eight numbers a year instead of six—or monthly save during July, August, September, and October. This enlargement will permit the revival of reviews, reports, and abstracts discontinued for want of space. The price will consequently be raised from $3 to $4 a volume.

Great variety and interest characterize the contents of the *New England Historical and Genealogical Register* for January. Mr. H. F. Waters's "Genealogical Gleanings in England" whet the appetite with a copy of the will of Lawrence Washington, grandfather of our first President, which seems to indicate a northern county of England as the hive of the family, rather than Northamptonshire. The descendants of Thomas Palmer, one of the early and best citizens of Boston, are concerned with Mr. Waters's batch of Palmer wills. There is a list of the alumni of Princeton who have held official positions. But the literary gem of the number is the late Alvan Clark's autobiographical sketch, written at the age of seventy-four. There are passages here which have the stamp of Defoe. Mr. Clark's account of his career as an engraver and miniature painter will surprise many. He tells of going abroad in 1859 with one equatorial mounting and two object glasses, on which he had paid 30 per cent. duty when imported as rough glass into Boston. "Nor was that all. The glass was warranted first quality, and when I informed the Deputy Collector that a large portion of the amount in invoice was in consideration of the warranty, and asked him if any allowance would be made in case it turned out worthless, he said, 'No, not a cent. If you buy the devil, you may sell him again.' The crown *did* turn out defective, and I had to import another and pay 30 per cent again. But we were then under a Democratic Administration," he adds naïvely. Mr. Clark never sued but one man, and that was the Collector, and he won his case.

Under the title of 'Physical Development' (Boston; Lee & Shepard), Dr. Nathan Allen of Lowell has rearranged many of his essays published in the last twenty or thirty years on that and kindred subjects. The idea around which all the discussion centres is the modification of the race for better or worse by care—or the want of it—in breeding, with constant insistence that the children of pure American stock are steadily declining in numbers.

Dr. G. A. Evans has "compiled and arranged" a "Handbook of Historical and Geographical Phthisiology' (Appletons). A very careful examination fails to discover any sufficient reason for it, notwithstanding the fact that consumption is an ever-present terror at our doors. The book is not indexed.

Two interesting books were issued last July from the Weidmann'sche Buchhandlung, viz., the third edition of Blass's 'Aussprache des Griechischen,' and the second edition, enlarged and improved, of 'Grammatik der Attischen Inschriften,' by Meisterhaus, of which we may speak hereafter. Blass has made his enlargements chiefly in the notes. He calls special attention in his preface to an interesting appendix containing the Lord's Prayer in modern Greek—not in the literary language, but in the language of every-day intercourse. This is followed by a carefully marked and accented transcription in Roman letters. Blass confines himself mainly to the theoretical side of the question. In contrast with this is an interesting lecture that deals with the practical side of the matter, viz., what pronunciation is to be adopted as the one to be taught in schools ('Die Aussprache des Griechischen: Vortrag gehalten im wissenschaftlichen Verein zu Breslau, von Dr. Konrad Zacher' (Leipzig: Teubner, 1888). The lecture, of forty-two pages, is supplemented by five pages of notes.

A novelty in calendars is that distributed by Thurber, Whyland & Co., in which each day of the year is set in a circle standing for the moon, and showing the appropriate phase of that luminary. The calendar prepared by Francis & Loutrel is elegantly simple and distinct, and has on the back of each monthly leaf a memorandum diary.

—"Round as Giotto's O," with much else in the master's life and work, acquires new significance under Mr. Stillman's fine historical treatment in the January *Century*, while Mr. Cole's reproductions, five in number, are enough to vindicate the high praise that a just criticism bestows upon the painter who first substituted true dramatic expression for the conventional faces that had gone before him. Mr. Frederic Remington has a subject which he has already made his own—"Horses of the Plains"—writes about it with great intelligence and from a full experience, and is his own illustrator. Nearly all of his blocks are good, some of them excellently spirited, and in almost all it is not hard to trace the influence of the instantaneous photograph. Fine illustrations also accompany Edward L. Wilson's Syrian paper. Charles de Kay has the first of what is to be a series of articles on Ireland. He lays out his work with great thoroughness, writing in this number of pagan Ireland, and giving with sufficient detail an account of Irish mythology and pre-Christian society, the aim of all being to enable us to understand the Irishman and the Ireland of to-day. Mr. Kennan breaks off the thread of his narrative so as to group in a single article details of the life of what are known in Russia as "administrative exiles," that is, men who are hurried into Siberia without a trial, without even knowing of their offence, deprived of the rights of a citizen without being accorded the privileges of a criminal—victims, in short, of the Government's most brutal and intolerable cruelty. What may be taken for a tapering-off of the war-papers is given in an article on "The West Point of the Confederacy," a slight but entertaining account of the Military School at Lexington, Va., and of the honorable part borne by the cadets in the battle of New Market.

—A series of photographs bearing the name of "Raphael's Hours" is brought home by many Americans who travel abroad. These

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representations are general favorites. The same designs when colored are considered still more charming. Curiosity has been naturally roused regarding the origin of these graceful and fairy-like creations. At least eight articles on this matter have appeared in the London *Notes and Queries*. The "Hours" have been traced t › the studio of a celebrated painter in Rome, Nicola Consoni. This artist, born near Perugia in 1814, was employed at Rome in frescoing the Vatican as well as the Corsini Palace, and in England was engaged for decorating the Albert Memorial at Osborne. But at an earlier day he had been commissioned to paint the "Hours" on panels at the Queen's residence, Buckingham Palace. Did the "Hours" originate with Consoni? By no means. He owed them to certain engravings which appeared in the seventeenth century in the style of Marc Antonio, the only artist who was allowed by Raphael to engrave his designs as soon as they were drawn, and before he had begun to paint them, and in whose engravings some lost works of Raphael—notably the "Lucretia"—still survive. These seventeenth-century engravings were universally called "Raphael's Hours." This is the testimony of Alexander Mantovani, the court painter of Pius IX., and of his successor. Moreover, Signor Consoni told Miss Busk, an English sojourner in Rome, that in his youth he had seen a print of that Borgian apartment of the Vatican where the signs of the zodiac still remain, in which room the twelve "Hours" "were roughly indicated as having been at one time there also." The lady's conclusion was that the "Hours" once adorned that room, but that, having become damaged, they were painted over, as the portrait of Dante was in the Museo Nazionale at Florence. What we still desiderate is to know the date at which the "Hours" began to be called Raphael's, and evidence that those engravings, though they lay hid till the seventeenth century, were possibly the handiwork of Marc Antonio himself in the sixteenth. The Zodiac Room was painted by Pinturicchio after designs, as is said, of Raphael. When the Pope shall permit the whitewash to be removed, traces of the "Hours," though long buried, may come forth to newness of life. Such a consummation must be devoutly desired by Mary Cowden Clarke, who has had the "Hours" frescoed on the entrance-hall of her Villa Novello at Genoa, and of all others who have loved to gaze on those aerial nymphs, which we should say had been copied from Pompeian panels had they not been well known before Pompeii was discovered.

—The Sixth Annual Convention of the Modern Language Association of America was held December 26, 27, 28 at Cincinnati, under the auspices of the University of Cincinnati. For the first time in its history, the Association met west of the Alleghanies. The result of this new departure was extremely gratifying. The Convention was largely attended, a series of interesting and scholarly papers was presented, many of them by Western men, spirited discussions were had, and the members of the Association were royally entertained by the citizens of the Queen City. In the absence of President James Russell Lowell the Convention was called to order by Prof. James Morgan Hart of the University of Cincinnati, who, after a few words of welcome, read a letter from the absent President in which the latter expressed his profound interest in the progress of the Association, and his regrets at being prevented from attending this meeting. A formal address of welcome was then delivered by Gen. J. D. Cox, President of the University, who pointed out the marked advance in the method and scope of teaching modern languages and the growing interest in the study of modern philology and literature. This address was followed by a discourse from the Rev. E. D. Morris, D.D., upon the "Language and Literature of Wales."

—The business meetings of the Association extended through Thursday and Friday, December 27 and 28, with both morning and afternoon sessions. Among the papers read and debated, the following were of special interest: "The Allegory as Employed by Spenser, Bunyan, and Swift," by Dr. H. E. Greene of St. Paul's School, L. I.; "On the Origin and Development of the Story of Reynard the Fox," by Prof. A. Gerber of Earlham College, Ind.; "Italian Poetry and Patriotism at the Beginning of the Nineteenth Century," by Prof. F. M. Page of the University of the South, Tenn.; "The Origin of Separable Compound Verbs in German," by Prof. H. von Jagemann of Indiana University; "The Study of Modern Languages in some of our Secondary Schools," by Prof. C. Zdanowicz of Vanderbilt University, Tenn.; "Dante's Paradiso, Cantos XXIV-XXVI," by Prof. E. Walter of the University of Michigan; "The Huguenot Element in Charleston's Pronunciation," by Prof. G. Primer of the College of Charleston, S. C.; "On the Impersonal Verbs in German," by Dr. J. Goebel, New York; "La Naissance, Le Chevalier au Cygne, and the Cycle of the Crusades," by Dr. H. Todd of Johns Hopkins; "The Anglo-Saxon House at the Time of Cynewulf," by Prof. H. Schilling of Wittenberg College, O.; "The Creste of Auberi le Bourgoing," by Dr. Thos. McCabe of the University of Michigaa.

O'CONNELL'S LETTERS.

Correspondence of Daniel O'Connell, The Liberator. Edited by W. J. Fitzpatrick. 2 vols. Longmans, Green & Co. 1888.

ORATORS who make no attempt at perfection of form, or who do not, like Burke, deal with the philosophy of politics, are soon forgotten in our day. This generation, both in the United States and in Great Britain, knows so little about Daniel O'Connell that it is difficult to believe that it was of him that even Greville, the keen and somewhat cynical contemporaneous observer, said in his Memoirs, "History will speak of him as one of the most remarkable men who ever existed; he will fill a great space in its pages. His position was unique; there never was before, and there never will be again, anything at all resembling it."

To understand the impression O'Connell made on his contemporaries, and the large space he filled in English politics between 1829 and 1843, one has to remember two things. The first is, that before his day the popular orator, the man who swayed vast audiences by mere eloquence, was unknown in England. Before the passage of the Reform Bill, the only oratory known to Englishmen was the oratory of Parliament, of the bar, and of the pulpit. The great politicians of the eighteenth century and of the early part of the nineteenth—Chatham, Pitt, Fox, Sheridan, Burke, Grattan, Canning, Windham—made their mark in Parliament only. The machinery of agitation, which plays so large a part in the politics of our day, had not been thought of. Large meetings held to criticize the Government were almost unknown. Attacks on the established order of things were made on paper, mostly in pamphlets, and were answered in pamphlets. Defoe, Wilkes, and "Junius" furnished the type of non-parliamentary defenders of the people against the abuses of power. Moreover, the voters were so small a body that great assemblages composed of them were hardly possible in any part of the country. A large public meeting, if held, would necessarily have consisted in the main of non-voters, who passed in the political nomenclature of that day as "the mob," whom it would have been undignified for a statesman to listen to or address. The appearance of O'Connell in an arena of this sort, with a huge crowd of followers behind him clamoring for rights denied them by the Constitution, and swayed by his eloquence to an extent which, to the phlegmatic English temper, seemed incomprehensible, was a very startling phenomenon. Nothing of the kind had been witnessed in English political history, and it excited mingled astonishment and indignation among the ruling classes.

The second thing is, that O'Connell may be said to have introduced the Irish people to the modern political world. Englishmen knew something of the Protestant Anglo-Irish gentry, who had achieved parliamentary independence under Grattan and Flood, sent members to the English House of Commons after the Union, furnished officers in considerable numbers to the army, and figured in London and at Bath as adventurers, fortune-hunters, and duellists; but of the Irish Catholics, forming the bulk of the Irish people, they may be said to have known nothing—indeed, they were hardly aware of their existence. Nor was this surprising when we remember how little the real Irish were known to their Protestant countrymen. There is a short passage in Burke's letter to Sir Hercules Langrishe which has been much quoted in recent controversies, and which throws a flood of light on the place which the conquered race occupied at the close of the last century in the eyes of their masters. He says:

"Sure I am that there have been thousands in Ireland who have never conversed with a Roman Catholic in their whole lives, unless they happened to talk to their gardener's workmen, or to ask their way when they had lost it in their sports, or at best who had known them only as footmen or other domestics of the second and third order."

When O'Connell was admitted to the bar—one of the first of his creed and race to be so admitted after the relaxation of the Penal Laws—there had been considerable change for the better in the political and social status of the Catholics, but hardly any diminution of English ignorance of all that concerned them. Their feelings, their aspirations, their condition, their history, were all hidden from the ordinary Englishman. That they were "papists" and priest-ridden was nearly all he knew or cared to know about them. This accounts for what may be called the O'Connell sensation in English politics and society when he came to London after his election for the County of Clare—a sensation of which his letters in the present volumes give very interesting glimpses. It accounts, too, for what, to this generation, which is very weary of the Irish question in all its aspects, now seems somewhat puzzling—the great success which attended the earlier Irish novels, such as Carleton's 'Traits and Stories of the Irish Peasantry' and Mrs. S. C. Hall's sketches of Irish peasant life and manners, between 1830 and 1840.

O'Connell's private correspondence with his family and friends, now for the first time published, will furnish a very complete defence of his memory against the charge of insincerity and self-seeking so freely made against him by the English press in his lifetime. They abound with proofs and illustrations of his single-mind-

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edness and independence. They show, to begin with, that he was, during his whole public life, laboring under pecuniary difficulties caused by early imprudence in endorsing notes for friends —a folly which the exuberant generosity of his nature seemed to make natural. His earnings at the bar from the very first were extraordinary for a young man in a poor country. During the remainder of his career they might have had no limit except what was imposed by his physical ability. But, although he drew but a small income from an hereditary estate in Kerry, and had a large family to provide for, he completely neglected his professional business for politics, and bore the total expense, then very considerable, of numerous contested elections, not only his own, but those of brothers and friends enlisted in the same cause with himself. He was most generous with his purse as well as with his professional services; and if he had not had, in a certain Mr. Fitzpatrick—a business man in Dublin to whom a very large proportion of the letters in the present volumes are addressed—a devoted friend, who looked after his financial affairs for him with untiring assiduity, he would probably have come to serious grief before his career was half over.

O'Connell had, when he first went to London in 1826 as counsel of the Catholic Association, a great success socially, but it was a *succès de curiosité*. As the leader of the movement for Catholic Emancipation he was not a bad lion for the drawing-rooms and dinner-tables, and received an amount of notice by which his letters to his wife show he was much flattered. This lasted down to his entrance to the House of Commons after the passage of the Emancipation Bill; but his social popularity in England died out very soon, under the violence of his own language. The virulence of the abuse which he heaped on political opponents was something new in the upper circle of English politics. "Scoundrel" was about his mildest term of condemnation—"scoundrel aristocracy," "scoundrel reporters"; but that he was unconscious of its force is made probable by the fact that he applied it to himself in moments of self-reproach over a blunder or piece of negligence, in cases in which other men would have called themselves fools or blockheads. The English newspapers paid him back in kind. He had a row with the reporters of the London press very early in his parliamentary career, over incorrect or garbled reports of his speeches, and revenged himself and forced them into good behavior by having them excluded from the galleries, under the rule as to "strangers." In this conflict, however, he had the support of the then editor of the *Times*, Carlyle's friend, Captain Sterling. This good understanding did not last very long. In 1841 the *Times* described him in a leading article as "an unredeemed and irredeemable scoundrel," and the priests who supported him as "surpliced ruffians." But seven years before this, in 1833, when he was first beginning the repeal agitation, he had been planning retribution for these attacks by a series of personalities which he describes as follows:

"You are aware that we must show up by real names and characters the persons who write for that paper. At the first leisure moment, I will give you sketches of the two principal writers, one a thin-skinned adventurer of the name of Barnes; the other with something of a tougher hide of the name of Stirling (*sic*). We will trace him through his different changes, now an Irish barrister, then a captain of militia, then a parson, and lastly the Great Unknown of the *Times*, who is saluted with awe by the *ci-devant* Whigs and now beplaced Tories of Brooks's Club. Mr. Stirling is not known at the *Times* as the stage falsehood of the scene. Nor do I see why old Walter himself should escape. He uses an engine to assail others as under a masked battery."

It does not appear that this exploration was ever carried out, but the warfare continued as long as O'Connell's health and vigor lasted. The resemblance between his relations with the *Times*, as indicated in the above extract, and those which exist to-day between the same journal and O'Connell's successor, Parnell, is a curious illustration of the vitality of the "Irish question," and of the smallness of the progress made towards a solution of it.

The exuberance and impetuosity, and one may say recklessness, of O'Connell's temperament are brought out more clearly in his letters than in his speeches. Everything in his character overflows—his affection for his family, his devotion to the Catholic Church and to the Irish cause, his hatred of his enemies, his gratitude to supporters, and his fidelity to friends. There is a vein of exaggeration in all his political writing and talking. His eulogies and his abuse are both fervid to the last degree. All the traits ascribed by ethnologists to the typical Celt were produced in greater or less fulness at every stage in his career, and they were made the more prominent by the fact that he was not only a Celt, but a Celt all aflame with the passion of a great struggle, who felt that the fortunes of a downtrodden race depended on his tongue. That there was, too, as there often is in Celtic heat, a good deal of method in his heat, there is little doubt. He came early to the conclusion on which his successors in Irish agitation have continued to act, that the best way to get the ear of Englishmen about matters which do not concern them personally is to shock them, to offend their sense of propriety, to alarm them about their persons and their property, and make them believe that they are dealing, not simply with ruffians, but with dangerous ruffians.

That O'Connell produced some such impression as this on English opinion, in spite of his belief in and enjoyment of peaceful agitation and his real horror of violence, there is, unhappily, little question. Its effect in separating him from Englishmen of whose sympathy with him in Irish matters he could feel sure, is curiously illustrated in a passage of Richard Cobden's diary, reproduced in John Morley's biography of the great apostle of free trade. O'Connell supported the free-trade cause steadily from the beginning. He opposed the Corn Bill of 1815, and stood by the Anti-Corn-Law League from 1838 down to its triumph in 1846. He had rendered the same service to every good cause of his day, including the anti-slavery cause in the British West Indies and the United States; and yet here is what Cobden says of him in 1848, when explaining his own silence on Irish questions in the House of Commons:

"I found the populace of Ireland represented in the House by a body of men, with O'Connell at their head, with whom I could feel no more sympathy or identity than with people whose language I did not understand. In fact, *morally*, I felt a complete antagonism and repulsion towards them. O'Connell always treated me with friendly attention, but I never shook hands with him or faced his smile without a feeling of insecurity; and as for trusting him on any public question where his vanity or his passions might interpose, I should as soon have thought of an alliance with an Ashantee chief."

This passage probably throws more light on the question of "Home Rule" than any other of equal length in recent political literature. O'Connell's private letters fortify the proofs afforded by his public career that Cobden was absolutely unjust to him, that he not only did not understand the Irish temperament, but was incapable of doing so; and yet Cobden was an unusually candid, fair-minded, well-meaning Englishman. O'Connell's letters show that he was really a valuable and perfectly trustworthy ally in every good cause, provided it did not interfere with his service to Ireland; that he was, for his time, a man of unusual political light and liberality; that his devotion to the Irish cause was sincere, and was marked from first to last by self-sacrifice, and was maintained under considerable private trials and difficulties. And yet, here is an Englishman of the very best class who avows that he could not sit comfortably in political council with him, owing to prejudice against his looks and manners. Could there be a stronger argument in favor of some sort of separation, be it little or great, between the legislators of the two countries?

PROF. BRYCE'S AMERICAN COMMONWEALTH.—II.

The American Commonwealth. By James Bryce, author of 'The Holy Roman Empire,' M.P. for Aberdeen. Macmillan & Co.

THE general conclusion which Prof. Bryce reaches is, that the faults which need correction are not so much in our constitutional frame of government as in our methods of working it. In this most of us will cordially agree. It is, however, interesting to note some of the differences of view which come of the different standpoints occupied by Englishmen and Americans. Habit makes almost any system easy, and a stranger is apt to be mistaken in selecting the parts which chafe.

Nothing is more common than to contrast our fixed and "rigid" Constitution with the so-called unlimited powers of the British Parliament. It is commonly said that Great Britain has no Constitution in our sense of the word. It may be questioned whether our use of it is as strict as is supposed, or their system as unlimited. Recent writers are prone to drop the once venerable and oft-recurring phrase "the British Constitution"; but, vague as it was, it had real meaning. Every people recognizes the fact which Cromwell put to his Parliament: some things are fundamentals. These fundamentals may be as firmly fixed when part of the common law of custom as in a written charter. The barons' declaration, "We will not have the laws of England changed," could not have meant that all making of statutes and decrees should cease, but that those fundamentals should not be meddled with on which the organization of the kingdom and the liberty of the subject depended. Magna Charta, from this point of view, was simply a deed of confirmation of these fundamentals under the King's great seal, and generations of Englishmen for seven centuries have regarded it as irrevocable. So far as it put in written form the fundamentals to which the nation was attached, it is hard to see how it differs from any other written constitution. The Petition of Right, the Habeas Corpus Act, the Mutiny Act, etc., seem to us amendments of the Constitution. In ordinary times the discussion may have little importance; but let us suppose a parliament to abolish all these safeguards, to enact, as in Henry the Eighth's time, that proclamations of the King should have the force of a statute, and to reinstate the Star Chamber. From our American point of view, we should expect the British people to treat this as exactly such a violation of the Constitution as if an American Congress should set up a king. We should not expect them to say that Parliament was acting within its lawful powers, and could only be reached by a revolution: we should rather look to see them declare that Parliament

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had made a revolution against the nation, and that the people must sustain the "fundamental" law by squelching that Parliament in the swiftest and most thorough way possible. It would be the people who were acting within their constitutional powers, and the Legislature who were illegally usurping despotic functions. The difference seems to us very great; and in a critical time, the lawful rights of the contestants count for much. The fiction that Parliament is the nation would be found to have died long ago, and to have been quietly but solidly replaced by the doctrine of national representation. Such considerations make us doubt if the difference between Great Britain and America is that the former has no constitution; but, rather, to hold that it is to be found in the fact that our Constitution is separately written, while the British is partly written and partly founded on established custom which hereditary public opinion has declared to be "fundamental."

The independence of the coördinate departments of our Government is another subject which European observers find it hard to grasp. The relation of the judiciary to the other departments is especially difficult for them, though they have often unduly exalted the office of the Supreme Court in declaring laws unconstitutional. We do not remember any foreign writer who has so neatly and clearly shown, as Mr. Bryce has done, that the judicial judgment, in determining what is the law of the case at bar, necessarily includes the determination of the prevailing law, if the Constitution and a statute are in conflict; yet he seems to have yielded a little too much to the tendency to assume that the judgment of the court of last resort in effect repeals a law declared unconstitutional. It cannot be too explicitly understood that in the United States the judgment is strictly limited to the decision of the issue between a plaintiff and a defendant; the authoritative thing is the judgment for plaintiff or the judgment for defendant. The grounds for the Court's opinion form a precedent, by which lawyers will advise their clients as to the probable result in a like case; but there is nothing to prevent the lower courts, whether Federal or State, from deciding contrary to the precedent, and sending up fresh cases, to give the Supreme Court the opportunity to overrule the former decision.* So there is nothing but the probable futility of the result to prevent counsel from taking up cases decided below in exact accord with the precedent, and it is in fact often done.

The Legislature may differ in opinion from the Court, and often leaves laws upon the statute-book which the courts do not enforce, waiting for the results of further discussion, or for a change in the personnel of the Court. In the legal-tender cases cited by Prof. Bryce, the law for a time was thus judicially suspended, but the same law was again enforced under the later decisions; it had remained in the Revised Statutes all the time. American lawyers do not feel that this contingency that decisions may be overruled is a harmful thing. It is usually in questions of a political character that the change occurs; and we find no insecurity resulting from the understanding that a change of judges on the bench will bring the court into harmony with the prevailing public opinion on important public questions. Changes made for the purpose of reversing a judgment shock us as violent and abnormal; but those which come in the usual course of events are taken to be part of the natural progress of history. It would have shocked none of us to have the Dred Scott decision overruled by a contrary one after the civil war, had the question not been disposed of by general emancipation. In like manner, we should fail to see how the respect for law would have suffered if English courts had overruled the old decisions that it was the province of the court, and not of the jury, to decide whether a publication were libellous. If Parliament had chosen to declare and interpret the common law so as to reverse that rule, as they might, it would have been a conclusive determination that the courts had erroneously decided, and the theory of infallibility would be as really overturned as if the courts had themselves done it. We fully recognize the historic truth that decisions have changed. are changing, and ought to continue to change (to paraphrase Dunning's celebrated resolution), and only ask that the change shall be judicious, as well as judicial, as the logic of events draws new conclusions from human experience.

The relations of the Judiciary to the Executive are not more difficult than those with the Legislature, if we only follow the right clue. We need to remember (1) that the Executive (like the Legislature) is its own judge of constitutional power and duty; (2) that the Judiciary as such is absolutely dependent upon the Executive for the execution of its judgments. Identical as is the proposition, it is often forgotten that execution is executive.

As to the first of these propositions, it is clear that if the Judiciary could by precept determine for the Legislature and the Executive the limits of their duty, both affirmatively and negatively, the courts would be the supreme power of the land, and the other departments would be subordinate, not coördinate. As to the second, it needs to be remarked that the judicial function properly ends with the award of the writ after judgment; the Executive must then take up the task, and see that the laws are executed. In ordinary cases between man and man, the routine of executive action by the sheriff or the marshal is so much a matter of course that men forget that the court is not acting. It is only when the gravity of the occasion calls in the chief executive, or the judgment of the court is one the chief executive alone can execute, that the coördinate independence and discretion are necessarily revealed. Jackson's mode of speech was rough and not official when he said in the Cherokee case, "Let John Marshall enforce the judgment himself"; but the *thing* was constitutional, and every way as legal as the judgment in question. It was a high political question whether he would use the army of the United States to coerce the people of Georgia. Waiving all question as to the legal accuracy of the judgment of the court, there was no mere ministerial duty to enforce it, cost what it might, but a coördinate responsibility to use his high political discretion in doing so. This responsibility was to the people of the United States and not to the court.

So in the action of Lincoln, when he refused to allow his military officers to obey the habeas corpus issued by Judge Taney. He distinctly assumed as indisputable his own right to interpret the Coustitution, and the absence of all right in the udge to dictate his interpretation. That Taney was suspected of sympathizing with the rebellion cuts no figure in the matter. It was the assertion of the right of the President to use his own judgment, subject only to the perils which the Constitution itself declares, among which attachment for disobedience to a court is not one. It would be absurd if it were, for he and his subordinates would have to execute the attachment! In the Hay and Nicolay biography is Lincoln's draft of his message to Congress on the subject, and it leaves no doubt as to his position. He asserts his discretion, under his solemn responsibilities to the nation, to determine which to omit if he finds it impossible in such a time to enforce all the laws; but as to the right to suspend the habeas corpus, which Taney had denied, he said: "I decided that we have a case of rebellion, and that the public safety does require the qualified suspension of the writ of habeas corpus which I authorized to be made." His reason for his opinion that he had the power, he finds in the absence of any denial of it in the Constitution, and in the fact that the danger which made the suspension necessary could not be assumed to wait for the assembling of Congress.

Prof. Bryce would seem to go too far in assuming that these executive acts were violations of the Constitution, and, as we think, has not fully seized upon the independent character of the departments of the Government. An old legal maxim says, it is the quality of a good court to enlarge its jurisdiction. Students of our laws naturally look to the judicial interpretation of Constitution and statutes for their guidance; but in this delicate province of executive independence it should be remembered that the language of the courts is apt to lean in favor of their jurisdiction, and we have to look to historical acts like those of Jackson and Lincoln for the rules of constitutional action which have been enforced in perilous times, when alone such questions are at all likely to arise.

Our author, however, very accurately touches the spring of ultimate power which prevents clashing in the great departments of the Government. Each, as he well says, is appointed by the people to its special work, for the express purpose of harmoniously coördinating their action. Their business is to work together and not at odds. Behind them is that intelligent and omnipotent public opinion which will apply the penalty to the one which in the public judgment may be at fault. This sense of direct answerability to a watchful master is what prevents, and may safely be trusted to prevent, a dead-lock between them.

It also tends to preserve the proper balance between them; for with public opinion on its side, either department may speedily reconquer anything it may seem to have lost. As all are sovereign in a sense, the old maxim, that Time does not run against the King, applies to each. Precedents have practically no weight when the letter of the Constitution may be appealed to. When public opinion sustained them, the houses of Congress constrained Johnson to submit to undue limitations on his power to appoint officers and to remove them. When Grant's popularity was thrown into the other scale, the Tenure-of-office Law was first changed and then repealed. The consciousness of this is a powerful influence against strife, because defeat is almost certain if one goes counter to public opinion.

After noting in turn many points in which, to an Englishman, our system seems to lack coherence and unity (which space forbids us to examine in detail), Prof. Bryce still concludes that perhaps no other organization of government would be found, on the whole, more de-

*What we are saying, of course, holds equally true of State Supreme Courts. Here is an authentic anecdote from the Life of the late Senator B. F. Wade of Ohio, when on the bench of that State: "A case arose before him of considerable difficulty. He gave it full consideration and decided it. It was taken to the Supreme Court of Ohio and there reversed. On mandate it came up before him. He disregarded the mandate and followed his own first decision, and such was his judgment. 'But, your Honor, the Supreme Court reversed your former judgment!' exclaimed the now re-beaten counsel. 'Yes; so I have heard. I will give them a chance to get right,' was the quiet reply. It was again taken to the Supreme Court and re-presented there, and this time with Judge Wade's reported opinion. On reconsideration, this was found to be the better rule. The Court, instead of attaching him for contempt, reversed itself and affirmed his last judgment."

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sirable or freer from grave objections; certainly, he thinks, no other would be likely to suit so well the conditions of American life and character. It is in the political methods of working the system, after all, that we must find the evils which do most mischief, and to which the people must apply the cure lest worse things befall us.

A careful reading of the shameful list of abuses done in the name of liberty still leaves the impression that it would be hazardous to conclude that a remedy can be found in this or that statutory expedient. As public opinion is found in the last analysis to be the source of strength for every department of the Government, for every officer of it, for every party which succeeds, it is a public opinion enlightened and aroused by looking at abuses without a veil, that must be trusted to apply the remedy. From whatever point we start our examination, we are pretty sure to come back at last to the one conclusion, that the spoils system has so degraded and corrupted politics that our ordinary methods of political action are completely overslaughed. When we have rooted out this evil, we shall be able to see how our system works under normal conditions, and not till then. Ballot-box stuffing, repeating, forging tally sheets, bribery, are simply the methods by which political criminals work out their end, namely, to get possession of offices and enrich themselves by the plunder of the public. When the people have learned that no party platform offers any advantage at all to be compared in importance with the suppression of the corruption and plunder that make our politics a bye-word whilst our Constitution extorts admiring praise, they will subordinate party for a time to the radical cure of this chief cause of their woes and their disgrace. After that will come a time when the working of our institutions may be studied under favorable conditions to learn whether this or that change of method will improve the general system. Their working under the control of rings and bosses, big and little, affords us no criterion of their value or their capability of securing the common weal. As we can hardly conceive of any influence more likely to help in forming a right judgment on these momentous subjects than that of so wise, so temperate, and so able a discussion of American institutions as Prof. Bryce has here given us, we repeat the wish that it may find its way to the library of every patriotic citizen, and be studied with earnest care.

VIRGIL IN THE MIDDLE AGES.

Master Virgil: The Author of the Æneid as he seemed in the Middle Ages. A Series of Studies, by J. S. Tunison. Cincinnati: Robert Clarke & Co. 1888. 8vo, pp. vii., 230.

THAT the author of the Fourth Eclogue should have been considered throughout the Middle Ages as a prophet of Christ, and taken his place upon the mediæval stage with Isaiah, Simeon, and Elizabeth, is not remarkable. That he should have figured in mediæval legend as a magician is not so easy of explanation, and has occupied the attention of many students of myths. A considerable amount of material designed to illustrate the varying character assumed by the great Roman poet in the Middle Ages was collected in Germany and France prior to 1872; but no one scholar attempted to cover the whole field, or to offer a satisfactory explanation for the legendary elements in the mediæval Virgil. In the year above mentioned Professor Comparetti of Pisa issued his work 'Virgilio nel Medio Evo,' which has generally been considered to be the last word upon the subject. In this remarkable book, the author traces the vicissitudes of Virgil's fame in literary tradition down to the time of Dante, and in popular legend down to the present day. With a minuteness of which we can give no idea, he has studied the history of the poet in his own and succeeding times, until at the close of the Middle Ages Virgil appears as the guide of Dante, and receives from him a double immortality.

In this exhaustive history, Comparetti is careful to distinguish two currents, one of literary tradition, the other of popular legend—although he confesses that the two categories of fabulous products have a common basis, since both arise from an exaggerated idea of the wisdom of Virgil. The genesis of the myth of Virgil the magician the author finds in certain Neapolitan local traditions based upon the poet's long residence in that city, the presence of his tomb, etc. The fundamental idea of the legend in its origin was that Virgil had not only lived in Naples, but had shared in its government and displayed the greatest love for the public good of the Neapolitans. There existed besides in Naples monuments of ancient or mediæval art to which were ascribed wonderful and talismanic properties, and these were naturally attributed to Virgil. The two vital questions—when the Neapolitans first entained the notion of the talismans, and when Virgil's name was connected with them—Comparetti is unable to answer.

This theory, supported as it was by Comparetti's amazing erudition, was generally accepted by scholars in all countries. In Germany, exception was early taken to the author's separation of the popular legend and literary myth; but it was not until five years after the appearance of Comparetti's work that a serious attack upon his theory of the rise of the Virgil myth was made by Professor W. Vietor in the *Zeitschrift für romanische Philologie* I, page 165 ("Der Ursprung der Virgilsage"). It is impossible within our limits to cite the arguments by which (using Comparetti's own material) Vietor shows that the distinction between the popular and literary tradition is unnecessary and groundless, and that the legend is of learned and literary origin.

It is interesting that an American student should have reached the same conclusion independently, and have embodied it in a work which reflects great credit upon its author. Mr. Tunison has modestly entitled his book 'A Series of Studies,' and arranged his material in nine chapters, which treat of Virgil's connection with diabolism, literary tradition, magic, science, the legend of the Salvation of Rome, Virgil the lover, the prophet, and Virgil in later literature. A preliminary chapter, needlessly termed an apology, states the problem to be solved and the author's theory of its solution. This theory, and the method by which it is applied to the various phases of Virgil's fame during the Middle Ages, constitute the originality of the book. Mr. Tunison does not profess (with one slight exception) to have discovered any new material, and his debt to Comparetti is largely and fully acknowledged. He has, however, by the thorough assimilation of his material, won a right to speak with authority, and his theory is the outcome of independent research. It has always seemed a matter of regret that Comparetti's book had not been translated into French and English (there is an excellent abridgement in German), for a working knowledge of Italian is not so extensive even among scholars as might be supposed. Mr. Tunison's work will diminish that regret, for it contains all that any but the specialist will need, and is more attractive for the general reader in form and style than the original work.

The problem of Virgil's legendary character in the Middle Ages is a most interesting one. A well-known historic person, whose individuality is never obscured, appears in the works of scholars in the twelfth century, invested with the character of a magician, and later becomes the hero of the more popular French and German romances. The problem is not so difficult as at first sight appears, and the key to it is to be found in a combination of two factors—the exaggerated idea which scholars gradually formed of Virgil's wisdom, and the tendency during the Middle Ages to explain exceptional learning as the result of magical practices. It must not be forgotten that the works of the poet themselves contributed in no small degree to their author's peculiar renown. The Fourth Eclogue was sufficient to rank the writer among the prophets of Christ, and the Eighth Eclogue led at least one learned author, in a MS. of the fifteenth century, to attribute magical powers to Virgil (Comparetti, vol. i, p. 196, n. 1): "Et fuit magnus magicus, multum enim se dedit arti magicæ ut patet ex illa ecloga 'Pastorum musam Damonis et Alphesiboei.'" The influence in the same direction of various parts of the 'Æneid,' notably the Sixth Book, must also have been considerable. It must further be remembered that Virgil is not the only poet of ancient Rome who has undergone this transformation, which Comparetti (ii, p. 15) declares to be so rare. In No. 1151 of the *Nation* was noticed briefly De Nino's 'Ovidio nella tradizione popolare di Sulmona' (Casalbordino, 1886), in which the poet of the 'Metamorphoses' has undergone the same transformation as his greater countryman. We must therefore differ entirely from Comparetti when he says (ii, p. 15) that the scholastic type of Virgil alone, without any other occasion, could not, by natural transformation and association of ideas, be changed into the type of magician we are now considering.

Comparetti believes this "other occasion" to be the popular Neapolitan legends referred to above, which he supposes to have grown up about Virgil's name. These arguments, after all, rest upon the literary tradition; and Comparetti himself confesses that the people of Naples did nothing but draw material inferences from the literary conception of Virgil, which was such that the cultivated themselves were not surprised at these popular legends. The diffusion of the Virgil myth in European literature took place earlier and more extensively out of Italy than in Italy. It was little known beyond Naples, and little attention was paid to it there, while it was collected by foreigners who visited that city, and transported from the sphere of popular tradition to the sphere of literary tradition, and passed contemporaneously into works of a romantic nature in the vulgar tongue and into Latin works of a learned nature. It appeared from the twelfth century on—that is, at the time of the origin of romantic prose and poetry, properly speaking. These are the words of Comparetti himself (ii, p. 19), and they contain the refutation of his own theory. We may add to the above the significant fact that the contents of the Virgil myth belong, not to the Neapolitans, nor even to the rest of Italy, but constitute the commonplace of popular legend everywhere.

Such is a bald outline of the confutation of Comparetti's theory which Mr. Tunison has rounded out into a compact argument, presented in a clear and attractive manner, and forming part of an agreeable narrative of the various phases of Virgil's renown during the Middle Ages. Mr. Tunison has done his work

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so thoroughly as to leave little room for criticism or suggestion. The name of the great scholar of the thirteenth century, Vincent of Beauvais, is uniformly given as Vincent of Beauveis—for what reason we do not know; the name of the Italian poet Cino of Pistoia appears (p. 193) incorrectly as Cinoia of Pistoia. With the literature of the subject since 1872 Mr. Tunison is not so well acquainted. He has not seen the important article of Vietor mentioned above, and is not aware that the Latin original of the French 'Dolopathos' (p. 56) was discovered by Oesterley and printed in 1873 (Strassburg: Trübner) under the title: 'Iohannis de Alta Silva Dolopathos sive de Rege et Septem Sapientibus.' This discovery was of great interest and importance, as it proved (what had long been suspected) that the 'Dolopathos,' which occupies such a unique position among the versions of 'The Seven Wise Masters,' rests upon the basis of oral tradition.

These criticisms detract in no way from the value of Mr. Tunison's work, and are offered as corrections for a second edition, which we trust the book will speedily reach.

The Origin of Floral Structure through Insect and Other Agencies. By the Rev. George Henslow, M.A., Professor of Botany, Queen's College. Pp. 349, with many illustrations. D. Appleton & Co.

THE author of this work disarms criticism in good measure by frankly stating that his observations "with reference to the origin of existing floral structures will not profess to be anything more than theoretical, and at most only a working hypothesis for future investigations." This candid admission is emphasized by the statement which immediately precedes it on page 3: "To attempt any theoretical exposition of the evolutionary history of flowers considerable caution is required; for the causes of variation are generally so obscure, the chances of seeing them in activity so small, and experimental verification so well-nigh impossible, that speculations on this subject cannot altogether escape the bounds of hypothesis so as to become demonstrable facts." In our view, the admission might have been carried further still by saying that speculations of this character can hardly, at this stage of knowledge in regard to the genesis of flowers, pass beyond the bounds of hypothesis into the domain of reasonable theory.

Prof. Henslow seeks for a cause of that variation which appears in the succession of organisms from generation to generation, and which lies at the foundation of the Darwinian theory. Admitting that organisms vary, and that of the variant forms those alone survive which are best fitted for their surroundings, we still need light on the origin or cause of the variation itself. It is well known that, long anterior to the time of Darwin, attempts were made to account for the genesis of diverse forms on the ground of the surroundings. And since the time of the publication of Darwin's 'Origin of Species,' there have been many endeavors to point out the relations of the surroundings to variation; for instance, in this country, much of a highly suggestive character has been brought forward by Cope, Hyatt, and Ryder, while much has been published abroad. The explanations dwell chiefly on the supposed response of organisms to their surroundings, resulting in the production of changes in form or structure which may be transmitted to offspring. These hypotheses of "effort" or "stress" and the like have shown clearly that evolutionists are in search of an adequate cause of that tendency to vary which we see everywhere. The present volume is the outgrowth of studies by Prof. Henslow in precisely this direction.

There is some vagueness in his use of terms, but in general he succeeds in rendering his subject clear and readable. It is unfortunate that he should at any point have weakened the effect of excellent work by the employment of such careless statements as the following (page 142): "If a particular locality be perpetually irritated, so to say, for generations, all analogy shows that the effect may become permanent and hereditary; at least, as long as the irritation is persistently renewed year after year." The general reader inclines at once to apply this statement to the particular case of the feet of Chinese women, where the dwarfing becomes "hereditary" provided the bandaging is undertaken early enough and in every generation. And the general reader seriously questions whether that can be Prof. Henslow's view of "permanent" and "hereditary." Aside from occasional faults of this kind, which it is difficult to condone, there is no adverse criticism to be urged either against his statement of facts or the greater part of his reasoning. He has gathered many of the results of recent work in morphology, particularly in the field of histological morphology, and turns the materials to good account in the presentation of his views.

Starting with a general description of an ideal flower, composed of circles made up of regular parts, distinct from each other, and having certain proportions, he traces in the ordinary way the innumerable deviations from the type. The deviations are attributed by him largely to disturbances of nutrition by irritation or by other mechanical causes, notably strains. In the ideal flower all the parts are assumed to be distinct from each other: the whorls, made up of sepals, petals, stamens, and carpels, are wholly separate. Now, as matter of fact, there are very few flowers of which this is true: there are various unions between parts of the same circle (cohesion) and between the parts of different circles (adhesion), and the question is plainly this: In what way did all this come about? The author's answer is here given in his own words:

"Differences of floral structures depend largely upon different distributions of nutrition in the several organs. The irritation set up by insects themselves is one of the most potent causes of a flow of sap to certain definite places, which encourages local growths, thereby inducing unions to take place between the parts of any whorl, forming 'cohesions,' and also between different whorls, or 'adhesions.' Other causes may determine them, for hypertrophy may set in through a purely vegetative stimulus" (p. 86.)

What experimental evidence is there that such irritations as those caused by insects can give rise to abnormal forms? That distortions innumerable can be produced by the sting of insects is too well known to need further reference; but can the mere visit of an insect, clinging to a blossom and withdrawing a little nectar, produce any marked irritative effect? Probably not. Any effect following could be more reasonably assigned to *strain*, from the weight of the insect or by his thrusting the parts of the flower aside. That strains result in change of form is well known, and the study of these effects has been one of the most interesting contributions of Herbert Spencer to botany.

Granting that, through strains of various kinds and degrees, marked modifications of floral structure can take place in an individual, we are brought back to the fundamental question, Can this modification, originating through an outside influence, be transmitted to posterity? Unfortunately, there is no direct experimental evidence of an unquestionable character, although there is some which points in that direction; and therefore the reasoning must be analogical. Prof. Henslow adduces for this process of reasoning a great number of instances which he interprets as bearing on this cardinal question; but while his speculations are ingenious and are very honestly put, there are many unsatisfactory gaps, and probably no one would more willingly admit this than the author himself. It appears to us that he finds his strongest analogies in certain cases of disturbed nutrition among animals, in which various maladies seem to many to be directly transmissible from parent to offspring; but it must be remembered that to many others some of these maladies appear to come upon given individuals because of an inherited susceptibility to external influences. Here, to be sure, is the hair's breadth which divides.

While we are not convinced by the reasoning of the author that the effects of mechanical and other disturbances are transmissible, it seems to us highly probable that to some degree they are; and his interesting work has deepened a conviction long entertained that the question ought to be attacked by botanists in an experimental manner. What has been observed in the animal kingdom is well known to our readers, and it is plain that plants offer a better field for this investigation than do animals. The response to the environment can be better watched in most plants than in most animals, and the question of direct transmissibility be perhaps answered there. The belief that this volume may do something towards stimulating research in this field, inclines us to give it a hearty welcome.

Cinque Ports. By Montagu Burrows. [Historic Towns. Edited by E. A. Freeman and William Hunt.] Longmans. 1888. Pp. viii., 261. 8vo.

THE federation of towns in Great Britain is one of the many subjects relating to English municipal history that have suffered great neglect. Most scholars who are familiar with the Anglo-Saxon period have doubtless heard of the league of the five Danish boroughs; but few, we may venture to assert, even among the best students of history, are aware that there was a league of Irish towns in the thirteenth century, and that Scotland also had a powerful municipal federation, the Convention of Royal Burghs, which is still in existence. Few, likewise, are acquainted with the important rôle played by the Cinque Ports of England in the Middle Ages. True, the strong central government of England after the Norman Conquest would not brook the growth of such potent federations of towns as arose in Germany, Italy, and Scotland; but the Cinque Ports, the only prominent federative union of English boroughs, exercised considerable influence upon the fortunes of the nation, and performed important functions as an adjunct of the State. Just what these functions were, however, it has hitherto been difficult to ascertain, so slow is the progress in bringing to light the many hidden treasures of English town history. We heartily welcome Professor Burrows's book as the first comprehensive treatise on the Cinque Ports, though he gives us only an outline of their history.

The author informs us that the federation of the Cinque Ports—Hastings, Sandwich, Dover, Romney, and Hythe—originated under Edward the Confessor. To these five places the "two Ancient Towns," Rye and Winchelsea, were added in the twelfth century. The name

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of "Cinque Port" came soon afterwards to be applied also to the so-called "Members" or "Limbs," various towns dependent upon and affiliated with the seven "Head-Ports." After the Norman Conquest the confederation remained for a time in a "state of suspended animation." "With the advent of the Angevin House, there are signs of fresh vitality; but not till the reign of John does their distinct military service, performed at the will of the Crown, project itself plainly before us as a part of the national history." During his reign the confederation became the chief support of royalty on the seas, being bound to stated services. The author styles it "the right arm of England," "the parent and exemplar of the Royal Navy itself." John and his successors frequently called upon these ports "to guard the seas." Their most important charter, which was granted by Edward I. in 1278, requires "their full service of fifty-seven ships, at their own cost, for fifteen days, when summoned by ourself or our heirs." In 1347 they furnished 105 ships and 2,140 men. Edward III. adopted the plan of placing the whole of his fleets under the Lord Warden of the Cinque Ports. "It was not till the end of Edward III.'s reign that the disasters of the Ports, from which they never recovered, began; but even in the previous half-century their preëminent place in relation to the naval service was not so marked as it had been under John, Henry III., and Edward I. . . . The decay of the originally fine harbors of the Cinque Ports lay at the bottom of this gradually declining position." Most of the harbors became silted up, owing to what the author calls "The Law of Eastward Drift," which he describes in detail. In the fifteenth century the confederation continued to decline, and was thenceforth of little national importance.

In return for their ship-service the Cinque Ports enjoyed various franchises, the most important of which were exemption from the ordinary assessment of national taxes, and the right to be impleaded in no courts except their own. They also had charge of the "Yarmouth Fair," and thus exercised control over the herring-fishery, a principal industry and food-supply of the English people in the Middle Ages. They had a central judiciary and court of appeal, originally at Shepway, afterwards at Dover. At an assembly called the "Brodhull" or "Brotherhood" (originally held, it is supposed, at Brodhull, later at Romney), they met to appoint bailiffs for the Yarmouth Fair, to make provision for their ship-service, and to assess taxes. The confederation is still in existence, though shorn of most of its ancient functions; the last meeting was held in 1887. "Speaking generally, the Cinque Ports and their members are still independent of the counties in the matter of roads, licenses, and police, and free from county juries and county rates."

We have not much fault to find with the way in which the author has done his work. Every part of his book displays painstaking study. He has not contented himself with giving us a mere compilation based upon other printed works, but has evidently consulted the original records in many scattered local archives. Only the few who have attempted similar investigations in England can appreciate what labor this involves. The author's arguments regarding the foundation of the confederation by Edward the Confessor (pp. 55-59, 62) are not convincing. His main ground for this inference is the vague allusion in the charter of 1278 to previous grants of Edward the Confessor, William I., etc. The more one has to do with records of English towns, the more one feels inclined to treat such references to the remote past with distrust; they should never be made the sole basis of an argument. Similar allusions to previous grants of Edward the Confessor, William I., and William II. are to be found in many town charters; and yet neither in local archives nor in the Confirmation Rolls of the Public Record Office do we ever succeed in unearthing any of these eleventh-century grants, with the single exception of the Conqueror's charter to London. We know, too, that municipal charters often contain accounts of the "great antiquity" of a place that are clearly as untenable as Fitz-Stephen's declaration that London was built before Rome—*Urbe Roma [Londonia] satis antiquior est.* The organization of the Cinque Ports into a confederation for national defence was a plan more apt to emanate from the constructive mind of William I. or Henry II. than from the inert and prayerful Confessor.

It is wrong to call the charter of 1278 an "Inspeximus" (p. 55); this technical term has a definite meaning, and ought not to be applied to a grant that contains merely allusions to previous grants. The *firma burgi* was an important municipal franchise, but the author exaggerates its importance when he calls it "the coveted sign of self-government," and asserts that to secure it was the main reason "why towns desired to possess a mayor" (pp. 112, 202). The mayoralty did not necessarily presuppose the existence of the *firma burgi*, or vice versa, though the two often went together. On page 118 we are told that after 1278 the additional franchises granted by later charters were "trifling," but on page 125 mention is made of two later charters "considerably extending their franchises." The author speaks of the grant to the Merchant Adventurers in 1617 as though it were something entirely new, which "broke up the trade of the Ports with the Low Countries" (p. 184); and yet the Adventurers had become invested with all their principal privileges by a patent of Henry VII. in 1505. But these few mistakes only slightly mar the general excellence of the book. Mr. Burrows hopes that his "sketch will be the means of eliciting a desire for a complete work" on the Cinque Ports. We join him in this hope, and trust that he will undertake it.

The Satires and Epistles of Horace, edited, with notes, by J. B. Greenough. Boston: Ginn & Co. 1888.

THE long-expected beginning of the "College Series of Latin Authors" is made in this volume of Prof. Greenough's. The scheme of the series, which (in this respect differing from the companion Series of Greek Authors) is to be the independent work of the several editors, presumably accounts for the very different rates at which the two series have progressed; for the *vis inertiae* of authorship is naturally greater where the starting-point is not provided in the form of a foreign edition.

A glance at the Harvard announcement of courses will show that the study of Horace is now placed in the Sophomore year (an example much to be commended), and that the teaching of the Satires and Epistles is in the hands of Prof. Greenough. This edition is, therefore, the work of an editor who, constantly dealing with the subject treated, knows well the difficulties of the—not too immature—student mind. Yet the difficulties of the student mind are determined largely by the ways of the mind of the instructor. One man loves grammar, another textual criticism, another history; while a happy few, not loving these less, love literature still more. No one who remembers the preface to the recent edition of Cicero by the same editor will be surprised to find in the preface of the present book the tenet—which includes a word for the intellectual emancipation of the youthful learner—that "college students sufficiently advanced to undertake Horace ought no longer to 'get and recite lessons,' but to study the literature, and understand and enjoy it."

The details of the book are consistent with this conviction. The young reader will find it unsatisfactory or excellent, according to the spirit which he brings to it. If his best aim is to "get his lesson" with a large economy of thought on his own part, we can imagine him complaining that he finds too little direct translation; and, if his teacher happens to lean toward grammar at second-hand, too infrequent references to the text-books on that subject. (There are but about twenty in all—a remarkable abstinence on the part of an editor who is himself a distinguished grammarian.) But if he wishes to read his author, and brings to his work some natural aptitude of taste and comprehension, he will owe the editor his gratitude for giving him for the most part, instead of translations, illuminating paraphrases of the contents of passages, and happy expositions of the links of thought, and, instead of references to grammars, clear and brief statements of the force of the constructions noticed. It follows from what has been said that the other party in the case, the teacher, will, with no relaxing of insistence upon sound scholarship, find himself aided in leading his students out of that way of looking at classical authors which furnishes the most dangerous weapons to the opponents of classical studies, and into the way of looking at them first as men of letters and delightful commentators upon human life.

These are the essentials. Having granted them, we must add that, if the book errs, it is on the side of repression. We should have been glad to know the editor's opinion on a few matters on which he has not touched, *e. g.*, the force of *catulus* in Ep. I, 2, 67, which surely cannot be the inert stop-gap which a number of editors have practically taken it to be. In the rather full statement of possibilities in regard to the "troublesome passage of which nobody can find the key," Sat. I, 1, 108, the opinions of Palmer and of Kiessling might well have been added, both of whom accept *qui nemo ut*, the reading of V, instead of *nemon' ut*, but interpret differently, the latter reaching a sense which, if not without difficulties, yet seems less forced than any other. That the reason of the omission is not a low opinion of V is shown by the note on *lusumque trigonem*, Sat. I, 6, 126. If, in Sat. II, 3, 262, *vocat* is read, against the weight of manuscript evidence, on the strength (insufficient, it would seem to us) of the parallel *arcessor* in the Terentian original, the student is in need of help with regard to the construction. Technical terms are generally explained, but not *spectatum*, in Ep. I, 1, 2. The references to the Odes are less full than the cross references in the Satires and Epistles. The notes are also occasionally too condensed in expression. Misprints are few, even for a first edition. We have noted especially *adunctum* for *ad unctum*, Ep. I, 17, 12, and the omission of *Hor.* in Sat. II, 3,326, which gives the verse to the wrong speaker. The spelling is so careful throughout that one is surprised to find that the editor, like Prof. Wilkins, appears to prefer *quodsi* to *quod si*, in spite of the *quod tibi si* of Catullus, the *quod mihi si* of Propertius, and the evidence of *quod utinam* and the like.

The notes, as in the Series of Greek Authors, are at the foot of the page. We are still so ac-

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customed to the other arrangement in American text-books that many may fear that the school-boy will have too easy a time of it; but, for ourselves, we hope that the system of interposing manual and visual difficulties in the student's way will be brought to an end through the example of these two series. The Germans, whom we do not accuse of being our inferiors in the art of teaching, are of one mind in this matter, and, where they have occasion to speak of our way, characterize it as unpractical, as was done recently by a reviewer of an American text-book.

A comparison of this edition with the corresponding editions of Palmer and Wilkins and of Kiessling shows interesting differences of purpose. The German edition is larger by more than a half, while the notes alone in the English edition occupy three times as much space as the sum total of notes and text in the American edition. The American and the German editions dispense almost wholly with textual criticism, which in the English edition is a prominent feature. In both these points we subscribe to the decision of the American editor. Textual criticism, for example, is an indispensable part of a complete collegiate training in the classics. But let everything have its place. The boy who takes his Horace well mixed with textual criticism in his Freshman, or even in his Sophomore year, is thereby the more disposed to want nothing further of classical literature in subsequent years. The innermost defences of classical study, which to-day are thought to be threatened, are the charm and power of the literature; and the way to keep the young student faithful to his classics until the time arrives when, in the course of nature, he will be glad to know about the transmission of texts and the evidence of manuscripts upon this or that passage of the author he is reading, is first to make him feel that charm and power. And to the same end there should be a judicious repression in the volume and the scope of the notes. Palmer's edition of the Satires, then, a work of remarkable learning and point, should rather be called a sketch for a great edition for the purposes of advanced study than a well-adapted volume in a "classical series for schools and colleges," to which it purports to belong. Prof. Greenough, who has done much for the scientific side of classical study in America, but much also for the humanistic side, has set himself the true aim in his edition, and, though possibly with an excess of self-restraint in a few places, has produced an admirably helpful book.

The Architecture of Provence and the Riviera. By David Macgibbon, [joint] author of 'The Castellated and Domestic Architecture of Scotland.' Edinburgh: David Douglas. 1888. Pp. xx.; 467, many illustrations.

THIS is an account of the ancient buildings to be found along a line of travel easy to describe and not hard to follow—from Lyons down the Rhone, through Vienne, Valence, Orange, Avignon, and Tarascon, to Arles, then westward to Nîmes, St. Gilles, Aigues-Mortes, and along the coast to Carcassonne, and as far as Perpignan; then back to Marseilles, and along the coast eastward as far as Genoa. In a curious fashion, which may be noticed in other writers than this one, all Languedoc and Roussillon with a bit of Dauphiné is treated of as if belonging to the geographical "Provence." It is a fascinating county, Provence, for those who love the south, with its white glare and its blue glow and the pale grayish-green of its foliage; and more than all fascinating to those who love the large carelessness of its picturesque towns and untended monuments. But it only reaches as far north as Orange, at the largest interpretation, and from the Rhone eastward to Nice: most of the buildings with which this book deals are beyond its narrow borders, and unless our author defines "Riviera" as the whole coast from the Pyrenees eastward, his title seems insufficient.

He has been wise, though, to see the characteristic independence, architecturally speaking, of this region, and its capability of being treated apart from other districts of France and of Europe. There are, first, the Roman buildings, and second, the mediæval buildings, each class peculiar and worthy of treatment by itself. There are at Nîmes the finest Roman temple extant, and at Vienne perhaps the second finest; at Nîmes and Arles two large amphitheatres, showing between them about all a Roman amphitheatre can show; at the river Gard, just north of Nîmes, a nearly unique Roman aqueduct-bridge, and at St. Chamas a quite unique road-bridge with commemorative arched portals; at Orange a Roman theatre, with one at least of its peculiar features preserved in an elsewhere unequalled fashion, and at the same town and at St. Remi two fine "triumphal arches," as we have to call them for want of a really descriptive appellation—the one at St. Remi standing beside a Roman monument in remarkable preservation. These are the showiest buildings of classic times, but these are by no means all, or even the only very interesting ones, in this region of wonders. It is as important to study this region after studying Rome as it is to study Rome after this region. The western spirit of the great Empire has left to our times traces less grandiose but quite as precious in the southern Gaulish provinces as in the capital itself.

All this Mr. Macgibbon describes, or at least enumerates, in rather a perfunctory way, as if he took little interest in the buildings. He cites Prosper Mérimée and M. Viollet-le-Duc for opinions as well as facts, like the compiler of a guide-book rather than an architect recording his personal observations. He seems to think it a general characteristic of large Roman buildings to be built with "enormous blocks of carefully cut stone, set without cement," and, indeed, calls that "the Roman manner," as if forgetful that there is very little of such cut-stone dry-walling in Rome itself, and that the quarries of Languedoc, and not Roman traditions especially, are the causes of the lithic construction of these great buildings. He does not distinguish between the very unusual and therefore precious monuments of antiquity and those more familiar and matter-of-course; and his nomenclature is very odd sometimes, when it is mixed with Latin, or what is meant for Latin.

Of mediæval architecture the most important, in Provence and Languedoc, is Romanesque, or round arched work of the centuries preceding the thirteenth; and next to this the military architecture of the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries. The Romanesque is not, indeed, comparable to that of the north, nor to that of Pisa and Verona, for it seems rather the result of detached efforts than a developed and well-understood architectural style; moreover, much the greater part of it is of small scale, not decorative, not very elaborate; and the three examples of great richness of sculptured ornament—the front of St. Trophime at Arles, the cloister of the same church, and the front of St. Gilles—are feeble and purposeless in design when compared to the finest of north French or north Italian work. But it is well worthy of study, and it is especially rich in oddities, in curious devices for solving the problems of plan and construction which all buildings offer to the architect.

The mediæval military architecture of this region is especially valuable. It is too generally the case throughout Europe that of its Middle Age fortresses great and lofty walls remain, mere meaningless masses, bereft of their characteristic features. The guide-book bids you expect to see "walls of the fourteenth century, nearly intact," or the like; and you find what might be the walls of a garden, for all the defensive character they have. The whole interest and character of a castle or a town wall, built before gunpowder came in, is in the crown of battlements, with or without machicolations, which of old afforded the means of defence, and which for us afford picturesqueness of effect. And the walls of Avignon; of St. André at Villeneuve-lez-Avignon; of the lofty tower close by, which, dominating the famous bridge, still looks down on the spot where

> "Sur le Pont d'Avignon
> Tout le monde y danse,
> Tout le monde y danse en rond";

of Aigues-Mortes, and, most famous of all, Carcassonne, are almost perfect. Restoration, indeed, has passed along the Avignon ramparts, and the whole *cité* of Carcassonne has been renovated by Viollet-le-Duc and his successors; but so much existed intact before restoration began that this last was generally obvious and easy. Moreover, there is nothing impossible in such restoration, nothing ineffable to try to say, nothing unseizable to try to grasp—only plain, squared stone-work and simple mouldings. There are no warlike buildings more worthy of study than these, and none more impressive to the non-student. Moreover, there is one great fortress which, although shorn of its battlements, is still one of the buildings of all Europe the most impressive—the vast Palace of the Popes at Avignon. There is no such combination of the princely dwelling and the stronghold as this. Yet is King René's castle at Tarascon a structure not to be disregarded, and that at St. Honorat is even more of a treasure. More nearly unique than these are the strange fortified churches and monasteries—Les Saintes Maries, Montmajour, Agde, and Maguelonne; and they are all in fair condition for study and comparison.

This mass of mediæval art is treated by our author with a little more spirit than is the classical architecture, but still the value of the chapters devoted to it is rather in full enumeration and geographical indications than in analysis. It is strange that one of the two authors of 'The Castellated and Domestic Architecture of Scotland' should write so cursorily and so little to the point of these interesting buildings.

Three hundred illustrations, apparently drawn by the author, add to the value of the book as a guide to the traveller and to the student. The complete inadequacy of the index detracts from this again, and prevents the book from being even as good a guide as it might be. Neither text nor pictures are very inspiring nor very attractive; both text and pictures may often serve your turn when you visit, and also when you cannot visit, the beautiful south of France.

A Blockaded Family: Life in Southern Alabama during the Civil War. By Parthenia Antoinette Hague. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

THIS little book has a worthy aim, and succeeds to a considerable degree in realizing it. The

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paralysis of trade, the forced diversion of agriculture into unaccustomed lines, the starting up of rude domestic industries, as if under the magic wand of protection, the system of makeshifts in food and apparel—all these incidents of the war, far away from all actual fighting, it is the author's attempt to set forth or illustrate. Not unnaturally, considerable space is given to the devices to which the feminine instinct for ornament had to resort, in the absence of the usual shopping; but much is also told of the ways in which articles of stern necessity in dress were provided, and of the improvisations which a ready wit made in the sphere, not only of dyes and weaving, but even of medicines. For the most part, the writer's style is pleasant enough, though a thought heavy-footed; but her political and moral reflections are in bad taste, and there is something almost absurd in her seeming effort to make out a case of great hardships for a family which did not see a Federal soldier or hear a gun all through the war, and which had abundance of supplies and the faithful service of slaves throughout.

Yone Santo, a Child of Japan. By E. H. House. Chicago: Belford, Clark & Co.

'YONE SANTO' is a study of contemporaneous Japanese life by an author thoroughly acquainted with his subject by a long residence in the Mikado's empire. With a firmer touch and truer coloring than in any work of fiction treating of the far East, he delineates the lovely character and the misfortunes of a young girl of gentle birth, who has been bred to the lofty ideas of honor peculiar to the *Samurai* or gentry of Japan. These misfortunes, in their order, are as follows: Her home life broken up by political revolution; poverty, cruel treatment by the elders of her own sex at home, a forced marriage to a low-born and stolidly ignorant husband; but first, last, always, and worst, the tribulations suffered at the hands and malevolent tongues of two or three American missionary ladies living in the foreign quarter in Tokio, called Tsukiji. A considerable portion of the book is taken up with description, dialogue, and remarks about these destroyers of the young lady's peace. Dr. Charwell, who seems filled with equal proportions of hatred to the traders, the British, the clerical and the female missionaries, an adroit questioner, but easy in conscience concerning fibs, is Yone's constant friend, not to say worshipper. Miss Gibson, his own and Yone's friend, is a Boston lady, who has fathomed the true character of the atrocious missionary women, and who escapes from their thrall to assist Dr. Charwell in his philanthropic plans. Yone is a marvellous character, absolutely unselfish, guileless, noble, and of a sort more rare on earth than in the airy realms of romance. Escaping the temptations of a European lover, she sinks under the burdens of sore mental trials and the stress of toil in house and hospital during the cholera visitation. The epidemic results from the shameless violation of quarantine by an infected German vessel convoyed into Yokohama by a war-ship in defiance of Japanese law. After Yone's death, Dr. Charwell finds his chief happiness in visiting her tomb.

This is the story that was published as a serial in the *Atlantic Monthly*, and which, though a novel in form, is rather a series of sermons, and cannot well be spared from the list of tracts for the times. The author, having pleaded his cause in magazine and review articles, correspondents' letters, pamphlets, and otherwise, now employs the vehicle of fiction to preach the wickedness of foreigners in oppressing Japan by treaty. As an eloquent prophet, he sets forth, in this burden of Japan, the wrong which even good men and women, trained in alien systems of morals and education, may inflict even when most intent on doing good. Above all, Mr. House preaches to men on chastity, honor, and the duty of treating a Japanese woman as a woman, a sister, and, under certain circumstances, a wife. Herein he is not excelled in cogency and clearness even by the "sainted" Dr. David Abeel in his address "To the Bachelors of India, by a Bachelor"—now a classic, but not read as much by the men intended to be reached as it should be. The defect of the book is its manifest unfairness to the American men and women who have made Japan their field of work, with motives at least as pure as those of Dr. Charwell or his thinly disguised original. The literary critic demands that a professed painter in words use other pigments besides tar and whitewash. To transfigure into almost unearthly loveliness of character a native girl, and to heap all sorts of ridicule on the women of one's own country, is not fine art, though it may be fiction. "Experienced wolves disguised as ancient lambs," "old maids," thinkers and plotters of nearly all things diabolical, are the females who, alas! are also missionaries; while among all the scholars, philanthropists, and gentlemen who happen, though Americans, to have received, among other lines of culture, a theological training, not one is found or known whom Dr. Charwell can trust or refrain from abusing. All this seems to us inartistic—ranting, but not elocution.

In other respects, the novel has notable merits. Finely drawn are the contrasting pictures of British rudeness and Japanese high-bred grace. The eloquent outbursts of passionate eloquence in defence of Japanese womanhood are noble passages, both as to style and truth. The satire upon Americans who make all native ladies of gentle birth "princesses" is fine. The incidents in the lives of the male characters in the story are like windows, and open to our admiring gaze a world of honor and chivalry almost unknown in our commercial days. These are told with a pathos that must draw tears to the eyes of those who know their intrinsic truthfulness. In short, we have in 'Yone Santo' a work of high literary art, disfigured by its own author, who has been unable to control his personal prejudices and keep out his dogmatic opinions. The novel is strong in what the author knows and weak in what he believes. Since publication in the Boston magazine, his doctrinal views are set forth in the Chicago reprint in a "postscript" of thirteen pages. Like that interesting addendum to a lady's letter, it contains the root of the whole matter.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Archer, W. Masks or Faces? A Study in the Psychology of Acting. Longmans, Green & Co.
Balzani, U. The Popes and the Hohenstauffen. A. D. F. Randolph & Co. 80 cents.
Comba, Dr. E. History of the Waldenses of Italy, from their Origin to the Reformation. F. W. Christern.
Conklin, B. Y. A Complete Graded Course in English Grammar and Composition. D. Appleton & Co.
Cox, G. J. Run Down: A Novel. Philadelphia: T. B. Peterson & Bros. 25 cents.
Cox, Rev. S. The House and its Builder, with Other Discourses. Thomas Whittaker. $1.
Edwardes, C. Rides and Studies in the Canary Isles. Illustrated. London: T. Fisher Unwin. 10s. 6d.
Freeman, A. C. The American State Reports of Cases Decided in Courts of Last Resort of the Several States. Vol. III. San Francisco: Bancroft-Whitney Co.
Goodwin, Prof. W. W. Plutarch's Miscellanies and Essays. 5 vols. 6th ed. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. $10.
Greenough—Kittredge. Allen and Greenough's Latin Grammar for Schools and Colleges. Revised ed. Boston: Ginn & Co. $1.35.
Hunt, W. The English Church in the Middle Ages. A. D. F. Randolph & Co. 80 cents.
James, T. Æsop's Fables. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.25.
Julliot, F. de. Mademoiselle Solange (Terre de France). William R. Jenkins. 60 cents.
Littell's Living Age. Vol. 179. October—December, 1888. Boston: E. Littell & Co.
Lowell, James Russell. The English Poets; Lessing; Rousseau; Essays. London: Walter Scott.
Mantegezza, P. Testa: A Book for Boys. Translated from the Italian. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. $1.25.
Marx, K. Capital: A Critical Analysis of Capitalist Production. Translated by Samuel Moore and Edward Aveling, and edited by Frederick Engels. D. Appleton & Co.
Merchan, R. M. Estudios Criticos. Bogota.
Merchan, R. M. Evangelina: Cuento de Acadia por H. W. Longfellow. 3d ed. Bogota.
Milton, J. Paradise Regained; Minor Poems. London: Walter Scott.
Mulholland, Rosa. A Fair Emigrant: A Novel. D. Appleton & Co.
Mullinger, J. B. A History of the University of Cambridge. A. D. F. Randolph & Co. 80 cents.
Paulsen, Prof. F. System der Ethik. 2 vols. Berlin: Wilhelm Hertz.
Poems of Wild Life. Selected by C. G. D. Roberts. London: Walter Scott.
Preuss, H. Gemeinde, Staat, Reich als Gebietskörperschaften. Berlin; Jules Springer; New York: Westermann.
Rolleston, T. W. The Teaching of Epictetus. London: Walter Scott.
Runkle, Prof. J. D. *Elements of Plane Analytic Geometry*. Boston: Ginn & Co. $2.
Saunders, F. Stray Leaves of Literature. Thomas Whittaker. $1.25.
Sharp, W. *Life of Heinrich Heine*. London: Walter Scott & Co.
Smissen—Fraser. The High School German Grammar. D. Appleton & Co.
Stedman—Hutchinson. A Library of American Literature, from the Earliest Settlement to the Present Time. Vols. V. and VI. Charles L. Webster & Co. $3 per volume.
Stedman—Lee. A Chinese and English Phrase Book in the Canton Dialect. William R. Jenkins. $1.50.
Taylor, H. W. Wickly's Woods. Chicago: T. S. Denison.
Taylor, J. The Thumb Bible. A. D. F. Randolph & Co. 50 cents.
Ten Brink, B. Geschichte der Englischen Litteratur. Zweiter Band, bis zur Thronbesteigung Elisabeths Erste Hälfte. Berlin; Robert Oppenheim: New York: Westermann.
Vatke, W. Religionsphilosophie, oder Allgemeine Philosophische Theologie. Bonn: Emil Strauss; New York: Westermann.
Walker, J. B. A History of the New Hampshire Convention for the Investigation, Discussion, and Decision of the Federal Constitution, &c. Boston: Cupples & Hurd. $2.
Weaver, Emily. Dialogues and Scenes from the Writings of Harriet Beecher Stowe. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 15 cents.
White, Prof. H. S. Lessing: Ausgewählte Prosa und Briefe. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.
Wrigley, E. A Practical Treatise on Building Associations. Philadelphia: James K. Simon.
Yule-Tide Stories and Pictures. Christmas, 1888. Harper & Bros.
Zola, E. Le Rêve. Paris: G. Charpentier.
Zola, E. Le Rêve: A Novel. Philadelphia: T. B. Peterson & Bros.

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